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GUIDE to NATAL

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THE EMIGRANT'S GUIDE
TO THE
COLONY OF NATAL.

BY
DR. ROBERT JAMES MANN, F.R.A.S., F.M.S., &c.,
SUPERINTENDENT-GENERAL OF EDUCATION IN THE COLONY.

Illustrated with a Map.



LONDON:
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1868.

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PREFACE.

THE following pages present, in a form specially adapted to Weale's Series of Practical Handbooks, a description of the Rise, Progress, and Condition of the South African Colony of Natal, a very recent offset from the older "Cape Colony."

The choice of a position and a pursuit in life is always, more or less, a balance between good and bad. Actual Gardens of Eden are no more to be found in English dependencies than in England itself. It has hence been the aim of the author in relation to this particular theme so fairly and fully to represent both sides of the picture as to enable the reader at once to form a conception of what it is that Natal can offer to industry and enterprise. It must, however, be understood that the task is not entirely an easy one. The most honest and the most careful men, in dealing with themes of this character, can only reproduce the impressions which have been made upon their own

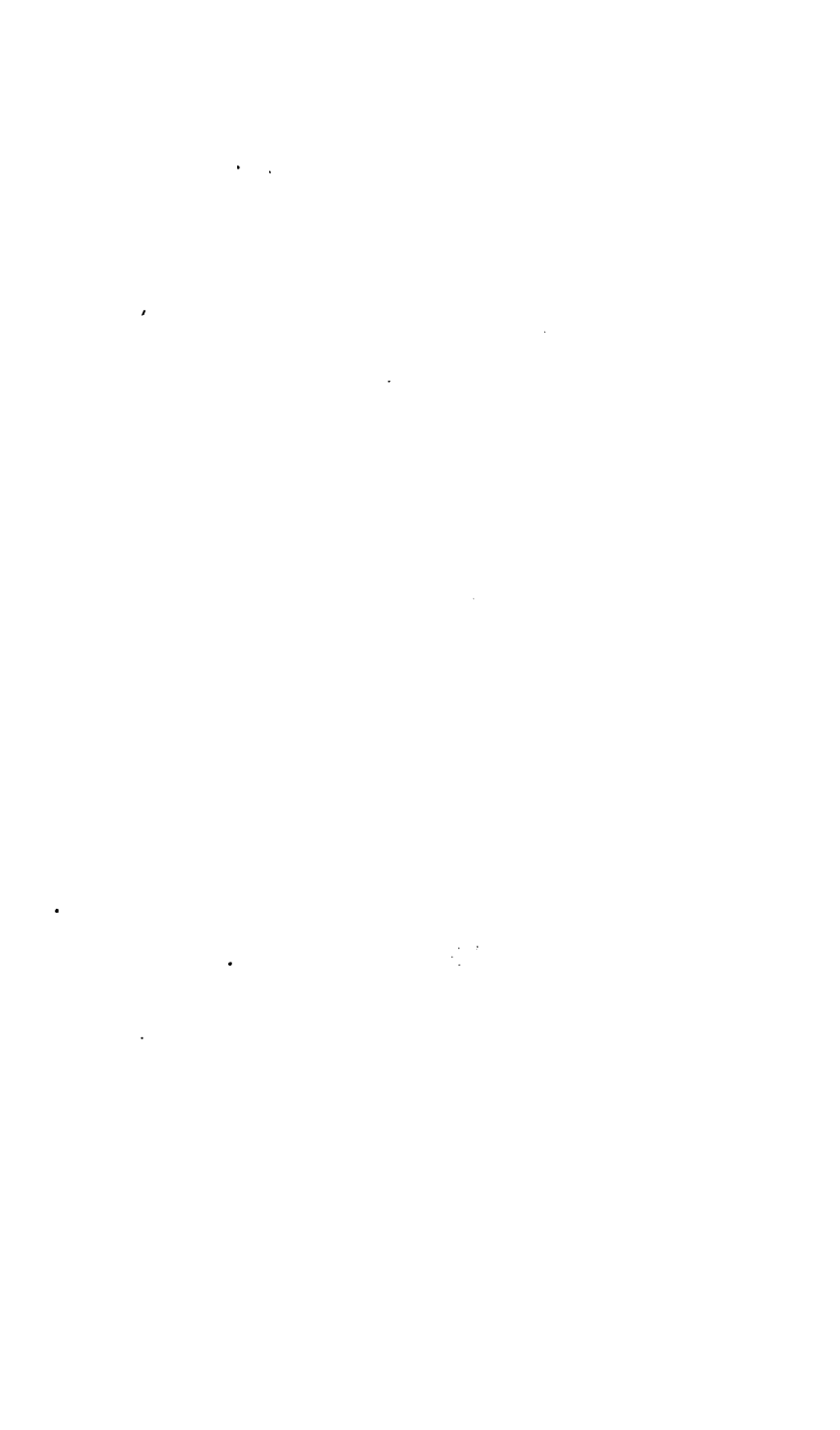
minds, and which are necessarily, after all, one-sided and imperfect. And, in addition to this, it is the common practice of readers to see in books, not so much the object and meaning of the writer, as the reflex of their own views and conceptions already derived from other sources—to catch suggestions that lie in the line of their own credulities and convictions, rather than to observe qualifying features and weigh full statements. The reader is earnestly intreated to bear in his mind both these sources of common mistake and misconception if he peruses this Handbook with any practical object.

The Colonial Government in Natal is at the present time engaged in collecting extended information upon the various subjects that are touched upon in this little volume. The results will be carefully collated by men of local and practical experience, and this material will be hereafter used in perfecting future editions of this Handbook. It is not, however, pretended that any statement, however authoritative, and however carefully prepared, can obviate the necessity for intelligence, common sense, and judgment on the part of the reader, to be applied in sifting and weighing assertions and verifying facts. The larger the mass of information that is brought together, the more sure that collection is to comprise matters involving controversial disputation and difference of

opinion, and, therefore, needing the same thoughtful and cautious consideration that is asked for this little volume.

The chief recommendations of the colony of Natal as a field for productive industry, which will be found detailed in the following pages, are simply these:—It is scarcely more than one-half the distance of Australia from England—namely, 6,900, instead of 12,600 miles. It has large tracts of rich, well-watered soil, and of fine pasture. It has a splendid climate, comprising a winter of genial sunshine, and a summer of abundant rain. It has coast regions adapted to tropical produce, and hill regions adapted to mixed farming of a home character and to grazing. It possesses a considerable supply of cheap, although as yet somewhat uncertain, native labour. And finally, it has a Government which offers freeholds of good land to suitable settlers, but which is sensitively anxious to restrict its land-grants to persons who are fairly sure to use the privilege for their own advantage, and make for themselves prosperous homes in the new region;—which, in short, adopts a selected, and not a promiscuous, immigration, but which offers considerable facilities, and which gives much real assistance when it deals with capable and desirable men.

LONDON, *November 4, 1867.*



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THE EMIGRANT'S GUIDE TO NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION.

THE young colony of Natal, one of the latest-born of the British colonial dependencies, lies on the south-eastern coast of Africa, looking out into the Indian Ocean, about 800 miles beyond the Cape of Good Hope, the southern promontory of the continent, and some 7,000 miles from England by the direct sea route. It is about one-third of the way from the Cape to the island of Mauritius, and two-thirds of the way from England to Bombay by the long sea voyage. Its sea-coast border is some 150 miles long, and is included between the 29th and 32nd parallels of south latitude; but the colonial territory runs up northwards to a considerable distance inland, so that a line stretched directly from south to north through the middle of its land, from the southern extremity of its sea border to the northern extremity of its inland border, would measure a little more than 250 miles. The land is, for the most part, well within the temperate zone of climate. Its extreme northern point is still 220 miles away from

the southern tropic, where the noon-day sun shines vertically upon the ground at the end of the month of December; but its extreme southern point is 1,100 miles nearer to the tropic than the Land's End of England. The latitude of the capital of Natal is very nearly the same as the latitude of Grand Cairo in Egypt, at the northern extremity of the African continent. So far as mere geographical position alone is concerned, Natal ought to have a climate one-sixth less temperate, or one-sixth more tropical, than England.

The coast of Natal looks over the sea almost directly towards Australia, with the broad stretch of the Indian Ocean only lying between them. It is in the same parallel of latitude with the southern part of Queensland, but a little nearer to the tropic than New South Wales or New Zealand. It is 6,000 miles nearer to England than Australia is.

The colony bears something the form of an irregular rhomb or diamond, with one of its sides notched or zigzagged, and with points to the north and south, and points to the east and west. The boundary line connecting the south and east points is sea. The boundary line connecting the east point with the north point is the Tugela river, which flows into the sea at the eastern extremity of the colony, and the Buffalo river, the northernmost branch or feeder of the Tugela. Beyond the Tugela and Buffalo rivers the neighbouring territory is Zulu-land, occupied by the Zulu Kafir tribe. The boundary line connecting the north point with the west point is a high mountain barrier, the west point itself being a gap where the main stream of the Tugela leaps from the mountains. Beyond this boundary is the territory of the Orange River Free State. The boundary which connects the western

point with the southern point of the rhomb is part mountain and part river. The mountain makes an angular sweep first in towards the south-east, and then out towards the south-west. Then a large river, the Umzimkulu, rises from the mountains and flows toward the sea. This river is a frontier stream for two-thirds of its way, but near the coast the colonial county of Alfred, which until recently was known as No-man's-land, lies beyond it, with the river Umtamfume for the boundary stream. Beyond the mountain portion of this frontier lies the Basuto-land territory of the chief Moshesh. Beyond the Umzimkulu river the land is Adam Kok's the Griqua chieftain, and beyond the Umtamfume it belongs to Faku, the Amamponda chieftain.

In the diamond-shaped colony of Natal there are thus four points and four sides. The points lie north, south, east, and west. The sides are south-eastern, looking to the Indian Ocean; north-eastern, looking to Zulu-land; south-western, looking to Amamponda-land, Griqua-land, and Basuto-land; and north-western, looking to the Orange River Free State. The notch where the Tugela leaps from the mountain barrier has been spoken of as the western point of the rhomb, because it is somewhat the most western point of the colony. But properly the whole stretch of the mountain barrier which lies between the source of the Tugela and the main source of the Umzimkulu represents the western point, the point having been broken and turned over, so that it looks towards the sea, instead of away from it, where the buttress of the Giant's Castle protrudes from the mountains. In consequence of this reversal of the point, the Basuto-land gets to be notched into the western frontier

angle of the colony for some distance. If the Giant's Castle were dragged outwards as far to the west of the sources of the Tugela as it is now to the east of them, the rhomb-like form of the colony of Natal, with four sides and four points, would be complete.

The colony of Natal, thus situated, is in size about one-third of England. It contains within itself 17,000 square miles, or, in round numbers, 11,000,000 acres of land.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL CHARACTER.

THE colony of Natal lies entirely within the slope or bevel by which the great table-land of the vast African continent subsides to the sea. The central mass of the land, in this southern portion of the continent, is reared up some 6,000 feet, or more than a mile, above the sea. From this height it slopes off to the ocean by a kind of bevelled rim, which is from a hundred to a hundred and thirty miles broad. At its landward side this rim begins by a sudden and abrupt jump of a few hundred feet, which constitutes a precipitous and buttressed wall, that looks, from the lower ground, like a chain or ridge of mountains. This landward barrier of the rim is called, throughout the entire range comprised within the territory of Natal, and for some considerable distance each way beyond, the Drakenberg mountains. The landward frontier of Natal is a grand rocky wall, towering up as the face of the last step or ledge which conducts to the high central plateau of the con-

inent. From the upland districts of the colony this wall is seen, for distances exceeding sixty miles, under the aspect of a true peaked and jagged range of mountains. The jags and irregularities of the ledge in places attain the elevation of nearly 10,000 feet. The summit of the Giant's Castle, the salient point of the retroverted western angle of the colony, is estimated at 9,000 feet, and there is at least one peak that rises 500 feet higher.

It has been stated, in the preceding chapter, that the western point of the rhomb of Natal is folded back, as it were, so that it juts, with its Giant's Castle buttresses and crags, saliently towards the east. The corner of the rhomb is here not only cut off, but folded over, so that the Basuto-land territory is notched for some distance into the colony. In other words, the mountainous frontier ledge is bent into a zigzag of three lines, the northern portion of which is salient towards the continent, and bayed in from the sea, while the southern portion is salient towards the sea, and bayed in from the landward side. It has now to be shown that the general character and contour of the land of the colony are dependent upon this primary distribution and folding of the mountain frontier.

From the southern salient point of the Drakenberg, the Giant's Castle, where the fold of the mountain ledge juts most boldly into Natal towards the sea, there issues a leading ridge, which crosses the entire breadth of the central region of the colony, as a lofty hog's back, quite to the north-eastern river frontier. This derived hog's back is so bold and high that for the greater part of its course it is more than 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, although not more than seventy miles from it in direct distance. This central

hog's back is the grand hill district of the colony. The land subsides rapidly and continuously on its right, and also falls into a kind of broad basin on its left, which will be spoken of again presently as having direct physical connection with the northward *retiring* fold or bay of the Drakenberg.

But the great central hog's back, or hill focus of the colony, which issues from the Giant's Castle point of the Drakenberg, is itself fingered toward the sea. It is like a great hand sculptured in rock, whose wrist comes out from the Drakenberg, and whose fingers descend side by side towards the ocean. There are five fingers to the hand, and four grooves lying between them. To the left, or outside of the little finger, side by side with it, runs down the frontier river Tugela. To the right of the thumb there is a corresponding large mountain-born river, called the Umkomanzi. In the four grooves lying between the five fingers are four other fine rivers, known, in reckoning from the little finger towards the thumb, under the native names Umvoti, Umgeni, Umlazi, and Plovo. To the southward of the thumb a somewhat similar arrangement of hills and rivers is continued. Other fingers come down here from the main line of the Drakenberg, instead of from a derived hog's back, and other rivers drain to the sea between them. All the fingers are also grooved at their extremities by shorter valleys, out of which come minor streams, so that the sea-coast is, in reality, one long fringe of rivers. In the 150 miles of coast there are no less than fifty river mouths, all issuing from separate water-sheds of larger or less extent. All this portion of the colony lying to the south of the hog's back of central elevation may therefore be distinctively characterised as the region of *divergent* and *parallel*

water-sheds and *many rivers*. The salient point of the outward fold of the Drakenberg shoots out radiant or divergent secondary branches, which are necessarily associated with divergent or isolated valleys and water-courses; and this divergent system is only replaced, further south, by an almost analogous parallel system, still of fingered ridges descending to the coast, and of isolated rivers between.

But to the north of the central hog's back the distribution of the land and the arrangement of water-shed are in direct contrast to this system of manifold rivers. The water is gathered there, from an area not much inferior to that of the rest of the colony, into one river, which then becomes the frontier stream of the north-east border for about seventy miles of distance. This district lies beyond, in the retiring angle or bay of the Drakenberg, and is no doubt primarily dependent upon it for its configuration. The *inward* fold of the Drakenberg has here caused the secondary and derived ridges to converge, and the water-shed necessarily converges also; a true river basin is thus here constituted, which has but one outlet, the lower channel and mouth of the Tugela. In advancing from the port directly inland through the midst of the colony, the main road climbs until it has passed the crest of the central hog's back at a distance of seventy miles from the sea; it then dips into the Tugela basin by a few hundred feet of descent, to be nowhere again at so high a range of elevation until it has reached the frontier ledge of the Drakenberg.

The colony of Natal is thus naturally distributed into three districts:—

1. The *Northern district*, comprising the basin of the Tugela, with its convergent water-shed, and one river,

lying almost entirely within the 29th parallel of latitude.

2. The *Central and Eastern districts* of the divergent water-shed, comprising the basins of the Umvoti, Umgeni, Umlazi, and Ilovo rivers, and lying mainly between the 29th and 30th parallels of latitude.

3. The *South-Western district* of the parallel watershed, comprising the basins of the rivers Umkomanzi and Umzimkulu, and the recently-annexed coast district beyond the latter river, and lying mainly between the 30th and 32nd parallels of latitude.

It thus appears that the rim of the great South African table-land, where it looks out to the Indian Ocean in these parallels, is not only bevelled, it is ribbed and corrugated as well, carved into a continuous series of ridges and grooves. But these secondary ridges, which descend from the high mountains and central focus of elevation, are not straight ridges. They wind and twist amongst each other in every possible way until a perfect labyrinth of hills is formed, with intermediate ravines curving and running along between their sides, and ploughed almost everywhere by water-courses. These derivative ridges are high towards the mountains and the elevated central district, but they subside continually, and more and more as they approach the sea. In the uplands they are for the most part green pastures unencumbered with wood, and ready for either pastoral or agricultural use. The forests are confined to the sides of the higher hills, and to the recesses of moist ravines. In some of the broad valleys and hill-slopes there is a considerable extent of bush, composed principally of thinly-scattered and thorny mimosas of small size. Towards the coast the *low hills* get to be covered with a tangle of luxuriant

evergreens, and the scenery along the banks of the innumerable rivers very nearly resembles that of the dales of Derbyshire. That of the upland hills bears an equally striking likeness to the features of some of the moor districts of Devonshire, with the distinction that the hills are grander, and for the greater part of the year very much more verdant to the eye.

As a general rule, then, the colony of Natal is one interminable succession of hills and dales, intersected almost everywhere with a superabundance of water-courses, and rising into higher and higher elevation with recession from the sea. The traveller who rides over the country is continually crossing streams of smaller or larger dimensions, and either climbing a long hill-side out of a river or water-course, or descending a long hill-side into one. In some few cases the hill-tops are expanded into broad flattish tablelands or moors; and in others there are limited stretches of flat alluvial land about the mouths of the ravines. These plain districts are, however, the exception, and hill ranges and sloped and tortuous ridges are the rule.

The hills of Natal are mainly moulded upon foundations of granite, trap, and sandstone. In most places these fundamental rocks are masked by superficial beds of shale, or of disintegrated vegetable soil formed by the combined influence of the atmosphere and energetic vegetation. But ever and anon some one or other of them appears through these concealments in uncovered boldness and nakedness. Trap, either in the form of compact greenstone or of columnar basalt, is seen in every direction, breaking alike through granite, slates, and sandstones with its intrusive dykes, and peppering the hill-tops and sides with grotesque blocks, that

seem to have rolled asunder from the molten mass just as its surface-layer was in the act of acquiring stony cohesion. Granite and the older sandstones are encountered most frequently along the coast range. The higher district of the uplands is of younger formation, and mainly composed of carboniferous shales and sandstones. There are very large and valuable deposits of true coal, in seams of considerable thickness, in the upland basin of the Tugela. Rugged masses of brown ironstone underlie the soil in many localities. Limestone is of comparatively infrequent occurrence, but it is found in limited quantity in some places. A very fine deposit of metamorphic or crystalline marble, some twenty square miles in extent, has recently been discovered near the southern boundary of the colony, on the river Umzimkulu, and within six or eight miles of the sea.

The rocky masses are very much shattered and disturbed throughout the colony. Both granite and trap appear to have been again and again forced through more or less horizontal pavements, often of stupendous thickness. The so-called Table Mountains, so familiarly and commonly known as characteristic features of South African scenery, are abundant in Natal, and appear to be fragments of these old pavements, upreared upon underlying buttresses of granite or gneiss, and remaining in their original horizontality, intervening masses having been swallowed up or swept away to constitute the gorges and chasms and gaps that now environ the tabular remnants. These Table Mountains are commonly more or less intimately connected with the continuous hill-ranges already described, their upper slabs being generally composed of very coarse-grained sandstones, seemingly analogous to the silurian

sandstones of England. The upper slabs present to the eye horizontally-grooved and shelved walls of bare rock, which come out in very striking contrast with the underlying vertical buttresses clothed with verdure, when lit up by the morning or evening sunshine. One very characteristic specimen of these Table Mountains, about sixteen miles to the east of Maritzburg, the capital of Natal, is a prominent and interesting object in the view from that city.

CHAPTER III.

RAIN-FALL.

RAIN is abundant in Natal, and most so during the period of greatest heat and most active and vigorous vegetation. This desirable result is assured by the conditions of geographical position and physical configuration which have been explained in the two preceding sections.

In the first place, the geographical position of the colony of Natal is such that it is quite within the natural region of the south-east trade-wind during one period of the year. Hence, as the sea-coast of the colony ranges from north-east to south-west, at this period the wind inclines to blow steadily from the sea directly upon the land. But it has also been shown that the land which extends inwards from this sea-coast is a slope facing towards the ocean, and rising with a general inclination of one in seventy, so that at a distance of seventy miles from the sea it is one mile high. This slope of land is, of course, more heated by

the sun's rays than the contiguous ocean, and a kind of upcast of warm air is consequently formed over it, which becomes strongest after the hours of continuous sunshine, and flags most after the hours which immediately follow midnight. By this supplementary agency the trade-wind inclination of the atmosphere is reinforced and confirmed, and a general prevalence of sea-wind over land-wind is secured. This is so marked that in one series of direct observations made by Dr. Mann, of the Meteorological Society of London, at the hours of nine in the morning, three in the afternoon, and nine in the evening, and extending through the range of an entire year, it was found that the wind was blowing off the sea 820 times, and off the land 145 times.

Now, when the strong sea-breeze comes rushing in from the vast sweep of Indian Ocean which lies to the south-east of Natal, it is, of course, largely impregnated with vapour. Where it strikes the coast it very much resembles the atmosphere of a moist, well-kept conservatory. If, however, this air were simply more heated on coming into the precincts of the land, its burden of vapour would soon cease to be obvious. The heated air would possess a greater capacity for absorbing and sustaining the watery particles than the cooler air had, and so the sensible and serviceable moisture would be diminished as the air advanced along over the land. But the air is lifted as well as heated; it is forced up the slope of the land which lies in the direction of its course. When it has travelled seventy miles inland it finds itself one mile high; and when it is one mile high it has one-sixth less of superincumbent weight, or pressure, to bear than it had at *the level of the ocean*. The immediate consequence of

this diminished pressure is that the relieved air expands, and having expanded, becomes incapable, in virtue of its expansion and thinness, of accommodating its vapour-burden. The vapour which was before comfortably and imperceptibly stored in an invisible, transparent, and proportionately ineffective state, is first condensed into mist and cloud, and then gathers into rain-drops, and plumps down as rain. This, in broad outline, is the natural mechanism by which the abundant and almost constant watering of the soil of this little South African colony is provided for. The sea-breeze, laden with moisture, blows in from the ocean, and rushes up the land-slope, and as it does so deposits a considerable portion of its load, because it ceases to be able to sustain the full quantity in the high region, where it comes to have less body and substance in itself on account of its own escape from condensing pressure.

But it must be understood that the process which has been here described is not exactly an evenly-sustained and steady one. Nature, for the most part, moves by starts and leaps, and sways backwards and forwards in compensatory undulations. The air, which moves along up the land-slope, gets more and more heated as the sun shines down on it longer and longer during the continuance of the day. At last there comes a time when the heat and rarefaction of the portion which is in most immediate communication with the ground is so great that the upcast is converted into an impetuous rush. The further rarefaction and the deposit of moisture are then accompanied with electrical disturbance, and the rain falls heavily in the midst of a thunder-storm. After this has continued for some time, the superabundant moisture gets all

deposited out of the atmosphere, the heated air becomes cooled down to a moderate temperature, and the sky is cleared, and the ordinary state of affairs restored, until upon some early occasion a similar form of disturbance is renewed. Afternoon rains, most commonly accompanied by thunder-storms, are thus generally reproduced every second or third day at least during the season of greatest heat.

As a general rule there are about forty thunder-storms at Maritzburg during the six hottest months of the year, and lightning shows that there are storms in close neighbourhood on other days also. In all probability there are storms somewhere or other between the mountains and the sea every day at this period, although the storm only visits any one given spot at somewhat longer intervals. At the elevation of Maritzburg, which is 2,000 feet above the sea, the amount of rain-fall for the year is about 30 inches. The heaviest yearly fall within the last eight years was 37 inches. This quantity is very nearly the same as that which falls during the year in London. The rain of Natal, although abundant, is, therefore, by no means excessive for a land lying nearly within the influence of the tropic.

But the rain-fall of Natal, although nearly the same as the rain-fall of England, when taken for the entire year, is not as evenly spread through the twelve months as it is in England. On account of the land being more heated by the sun during the summer season, when the sunshine falls most directly upon its surface, the afternoon upcasts and electrical disturbance are then most frequently and most energetically produced. During the winter season the movement of the air is more gentle and steady, and less paroxysmal. Hence,

four-fifths of the rain which falls in the year descends during the six months of summer, or of greatest heat, and only one-fifth descends in the winter six months, and that fifth principally at the beginning and end of the winter season. There are two mid-winter months, those of June and July, in each of which seven-tenths of an inch of rain may be looked for, and in which some slight fall may be expected on three days in the month. For two months before and two months after June and July, one inch and four-tenths of an inch may be looked for, and rain be expected to fall on eight days in the month. During the six summer months, which extend from October to March, four inches of rain per month, and rain on fifteen days in each month, may be expected. The following statement gives the actual distribution of the rain-fall in the several months of the year for Maritzburg, derived as an average from exact observations extending over a period of eight years :—

	Inches.		Inches.
January	3·92	July	0·23
February	4·41	August	0·14
March	3·29	September	1·32
April	1·44	October	3·60
May	0·95	November	4·58
June	0·26	December	5·04

The average number of rain-days—that is, of days on which rain falls in greater or less amount—for the several months, taken from the same period, was :—

	Rain Days.		Rain Days.
January	16	July	2
February	14	August	5
March	13	September	8
April	9	October	17
May	3	November	17
June	1	December	18

The average rain-fall during the two driest mid-winter months is 1·38 inches. The average fall during the

four intermediate months is 5·83 inches. The average fall for the six wet months is 23·87 inches. There are about 135 days in the year on which some rain falls, and about 230 days on which no rain falls.

The actual rain-fall for each of the eight years of the series extending from 1858 to 1865 was:—

	Inches.		Inches.
1858	27·42	1862	29·97
1859	28·40	1863	34·66
1860	30·60	1864	37·31
1861	22·41	1865	31·08

The average number of days in each year on which thunder-storms occur at Maritzburg is fifty-one; and lightning is seen on about twelve other days, intimating that there are thunder-storms near. The following statement expresses the distribution of thunder-storms, by giving the average number for each month in the year:—

	Days on which storms occur.		Days on which storms occur.
January	7·9	July	0·8
February	6·6	August	1·1
March	5·2	September	3·6
April	2·9	October	6·2
May	1·5	November	7·3
June	0·2	December	8·1

The rain low down on the coast districts is about one-half as heavy again as it is at the elevation of Maritzburg, 2,000 feet above the sea. This, however, seems to be mainly due to the fact that sea rains occur as well as thunder-storm rains. Strong sea gales occasionally blow during two or three days at a time, and bring in masses of air so heavily laden with moisture that they pour down rain the instant they touch the land. Rain of this character differs essentially from the more ordinary storm rain, and gets progressively lighter and lighter with advance up the land, until on the summits

of the highest hills it often does not exceed a condition of thick mist. The true storm rains, which are the usual daily waterings, on the other hand, are for the most part heavier on the uplands than on the coast.

The sea rains accompanying southerly gales are sufficiently heavy on rare occasions to cause floods in the lower districts near the coast. The last heavy flood of this character occurred in the year 1856. During the three days extending from the 14th to the 16th of April of that year, it was estimated that 27 inches of rain fell at the port of Durban. The river Umgeni rose 28 feet above its usual level near its mouth, and overflowed a considerable portion of the flat on which the town of Durban is built. The river Tongaat rose 30 feet, and the river Umvoti 16 feet above the average level. The fact that these sea rains fall principally near the coast was very strikingly illustrated upon this occasion. The fall at Maritzburg, forty miles in a direct course inland, and 2,000 feet high, was only between 10 and 11 inches, and the Great Bushman's river, one of the higher branches of the Tugela, was not swollen beyond the extent usual for the summer. During a heavy sea rain, which happened in the month of June, in the year 1865, the fall on the coast in seven days was $9\frac{1}{4}$ inches, while the fall at Maritzburg was only $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch. The heaviest rain-fall within twenty-four hours at Maritzburg, during a period of eight years, was 2 inches. Upon one occasion only, an inch fell within a single hour.

In consequence of the distribution of rain-fall that has been described, the rivers in Natal never altogether dry up. They run all the year long; but they are fuller in summer than in winter. The water is so low in winter-time that horsemen can ride and waggons

be driven through even the largest rivers, excepting in the close neighbourhood of their mouths. In the summer-time, on the other hand, the water continues during some months to be so deep that horses and oxen cannot pass in many of the rivers unless by swimming.

On the whole, on account of the frequent and recurring fall of rain, and of the broken and hilly character of the country, the colony of Natal is wonderfully well watered. There is scarcely a spot, excepting the actual hill-tops, to which water may not be led by the exercise of a little ingenuity and contrivance.

Hail occasionally falls in Natal in connection with the thunder-storms; and some of the upland districts seem to be more prone to the visitation than others. The storms are sometimes most violent, and the masses of ice that are precipitated to the ground very large. Destructive storms do not, however, often occur; and when they do, they are confined to a narrow belt of country, which is very rarely indeed visited again by the same injury until after a lengthened interval. The rustle and roar of a hail-storm can be heard even for minutes before it reaches the spot surrounding the listener.

CHAPTER IV.

TEMPERATURE AND SEASONS.

Two very important consequences follow upon the provision described in detail in the preceding chapter. Natal has an eminently genial and sunny winter, and a comparatively cool and cloudy summer. The cooler

season is warmed day after day by the almost unbroken sunshine that prevails when the afternoon upcast is not developed in sufficient intensity to produce the afternoon thunder-storm ; while the great heat of the nearly vertical sun at the opposite season is softened day after day by the canopy of mist and cloud spread over the sky soon after the hour of noon, and by the evaporation of the abundant rain that is poured upon the ground. Hence the seasons are more properly wet seasons and dry seasons than summer and winter. The luxuriant and rapid vegetable growth of the summer is more stimulated by abundant moisture than by excessive heat. It commonly happens that there are not more than twenty days of unbroken cloud during the six months of winter, while there are as many as fifty days of unbroken sunshine, and the remainder are days that have much more sunshine than cloud. The mid-winter of Natal is more like a fine June in England than anything else, excepting that the nights are cold. The sun in the mid-winter season rises at seven and sets at five ; and soon after rising, if not from the very horizon, bursts forth into unclouded splendour, so that the temperature rapidly rises to somewhere above 70 degrees. In the afternoon clouds are seen gathering over the summits of the highest hills, but these rarely descend at this season to the lower regions. Only light clothing is worn with comfort during the middle of the day, but the evening becomes so cool that warmer garments are required, and wood-fires lit in the houses. There are rarely more than eight days in the winter months in which the temperature does not rise during the day to 60 degrees, and scarcely twenty nights on which it falls below 40 degrees. The thermometer only marked freezing

at Maritzburg five times during a period of eight years.

The unclouded serenity of the winter weather is only occasionally disturbed by the occurrence of sea rains, which prevail more or less continuously through a period of two or three days, and diminish into mere mists among the higher hills.

At the season of mid-summer the sun rises at five in the morning and sets at seven in the evening. The winter day is ten hours and the summer day is fourteen hours long. There is only four hours' difference between the length of daylight in mid-summer and mid-winter. At mid-summer the early morning is generally fine, and the temperature rises by noon to somewhere about 80 or 85 degrees. Then, or soon after, heavy clouds gather about the hills and come sweeping down into the lower regions; and about every other day rain, commonly accompanied by lightning and thunder, falls for two or three hours in the afternoon, and the temperature sinks rapidly to 65 or 70 degrees. The evenings and earlier portions of the nights generally continue to be enveloped in clouds, and then towards midnight the stars appear and the sky clears in preparation for the sunrise. There are not more than fifty days in the year in which the temperature of the day rises to 84 degrees, and not more than twelve days on which it rises to 90 degrees. There are only about eight nights in the year on which the temperature does not fall to 70 degrees, and there are about 200 nights in the year on which it falls to 60 degrees. The highest temperature registered by the thermometer at Maritzburg during a period of eight years was 97·6 degrees.

It has been stated that although, as a general rule, *the thermometer* does not rise above 84 degrees in

summer-time, it may be expected to rise above 90 degrees on twelve days in the year, and to approach 90 degrees on a few other days. The reason for this is that on those exceptional days a hot land-wind blows in considerable force during a few hours. This South African hot wind, or sirocco, is a very remarkable phenomenon, and is, on the whole, the most unpleasant feature in the climate of Natal. There is, however, one consolation in connection with it—the fact, namely, that it is nearly always of brief duration.

The hot wind generally begins to blow very early in the morning, and continues when it does so until noon, or one or two o'clock in the afternoon. It is very strong, amounting often almost to a hurricane, and is irregular and fitful, expending itself in short bursts and gusts, and sweeping dense clouds of dust over the country. The towns are frequently enveloped in dust-storms during its prevalence. The heat becomes very oppressive, the thermometer rising to somewhere between 85 and 97 degrees. In mid-winter the hot wind sometimes blows without raising the thermometer above 85 degrees, but this is very rare. The air is so dry with it that wood splits and cracks with sudden explosions, and plants shrivel and drop under its touch. The invisible vapour of the air sinks to 30, and even to 25 degrees of humidity of the hygrometric scale. The strong wind lulls suddenly in the early afternoon, and immediately afterwards a strong cool sea-wind sets in from the south-east, and at once carries the temperature of the air down and the moisture of the air up several degrees. It occasionally happens that the hot wind intermits in the afternoon, and then returns in the evening, or on the following morning, for two or even three days in succession; but more

commonly it does not recur until after an interval of several days. In the summer season, when the hot wind attains its fullest development, it is almost always followed by a thunder-storm, bursting just when the antagonistic sea-current sets in.

The hot wind of South Africa seems to be due to the temporary reversal of the natural distribution and movements of the currents of the atmosphere in the locality. The general tendency of the air in the lower regions is to move steadily *towards* the north-west under the influences which have been described. But there is necessarily also a compensatory set in the upper regions of the air in the opposite direction—that is, *from the north-west*. As a general rule, these currents keep their own course, the one near the earth and the other in the upper regions; but occasionally they interfere, more or less, with each other. The one encroaches to some extent upon the other. Whenever the predominance of the upper current reaches an extreme degree, that current for a brief period actually displaces its antagonist and sweeps along the ground, bringing with it the temperature and dryness of the heated land-region of the interior from which it has risen to feed this upper stream. It is not possible to say what the exact cause of the disturbance that leads to this displacement is. But there can scarcely be a doubt that there is a constant alternating play between the two currents, first the one and then the other taking its term of rule and predominance. This is unmistakably instanced by the movements of the barometer. When the upper and warm current is gaining ascendancy the entire stratum of air is higher, in consequence of the larger proportion of rare air which it contains, and the mercurial column of the barometer accordingly

falls. But when the lower and cool current is gaining ascendancy the entire stratum is heavier, in consequence of the larger proportion of dense air which it contains, and the mercurial column of the barometer accordingly rises. Now direct observation of the instrument shows that there is a constant change in Natal to the one or the other of these conditions. The mercury of the barometer is never stationary. It is continually sweeping boldly up or boldly down from day to day. In all probability these great alternating oscillations of the atmosphere over South Africa are due to the progressive increase and decrease of the sun's influence, during change of season, over large and varied tracts of surface. That this is the case is pretty well proved by the fact that when the average of a long period is taken, the hot winds are found to be most prevalent at the very beginning of the hot season, and to increase regularly before and decrease regularly after this period. Thus, in an average drawn from a series of eight years, the frequency with which hot winds are found to blow in the several months of the year is expressed by the following numbers :—

January	1.5	July	2.4
February	1.2	August	3.2
March	0.7	September	5.1
April	0.9	October	4.2
May	1.2	November	3.0
June	0.9	December	1.7

The actual number of times that the hot land wind blew in force during the four months of greatest frequency in the years of this series was :—

	Aug.		Sept.		Oct.		Nov.
1858	4	4	1	2
1859	2	7	3	3
1860	0	3	4	1

	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.
1861	7	4	3	3
1862	7	8	8	4
1863	2	5	2	3
1864	5	6	5	5
1865	4	4	4	3

If the pressure of the atmosphere on the ground in Natal be represented by lines drawn upon paper, it will appear as if a series of large air waves, about eight days long, were continually sweeping over the land. The hot winds always, and the thunder-storms generally, coincide with the troughs of these waves. The sea rains coincide with their crests. Hence there is rain in Natal with both high and low barometer; sea rain with the high, and thunder-storm rain with the low.

The number of times that the hot wind blew in each year of the series of years already specified, was :—

	Times.		Times.
1858	21	1862	40
1859	36	1863	21
1860	16	1864	31
1861	17	1865	28

The average of this series shows that this unwelcome visitor may be looked for in Maritzburg about twenty-five times in each year.

The highest temperature that occurred in Maritzburg during eight years was 97·6 degrees. The lowest temperature in the same period was 29·0. The extreme range of temperature for this period was therefore 68·6 degrees. There is considerable vicissitude of temperature at all times, and this is one of the things that makes the climate exceedingly pleasant to Englishmen. An amount of change that is very unpleasant when it takes place from temperate warmth to great cold, is as agreeable when it takes place from great heat to temperate warmth. It is worthy of remark, however, that

in the season of summer this vicissitude occurs between successive days, while in the season of winter it takes place between day and night. In summer a warm day is continually followed by a cool one, while in winter a warm day is followed by a cold night. This is simply a natural consequence of the summer being a season of frequent cloud and rain, while the winter is a season of almost constant sunshine.

The following numbers express the highest, the mean, and the lowest temperatures of the several months of the year at Maritzburg, the series being derived from observations extended over a period of eight years:—

TEMPERATURES OF THE WINTER MONTHS.

	Highest.		Mean.		Lowest.
April	89·5	64·8	40·2
May	85·2	59·3	35·4
June	78·2	55·2	32·0
July	82·2	55·2	29·0
August	89·8	59·7	34·8
September	95·4	65·1	38·0

TEMPERATURES OF THE SUMMER MONTHS.

	Highest.		Mean.		Lowest.
October	96·0	66·6	45·2
November	97·2	67·1	45·2
December	97·6	70·4	52·2
January	93·0	71·4	51·8
February	97·1	71·8	55·8
March	92·8	69·7	42·0

The mean temperature of the winter is thus 60 degrees, and the mean temperature of the summer 69 degrees.

The mean temperature of the year at Maritzburg is 64·71 degrees. The coast district may be looked upon as being about three degrees and a half warmer than Maritzburg; but in it the extremes are decidedly less than in the uplands. The sun is less scorching in the midday, and the nights are very much less cool. In the coast district there is a considerable approach towards

the character of the insular climate so strongly developed in the island of the Mauritius. The leading feature of the upland climate is agreeable relief and change. The leading feature of the coast climate is more steadily and evenly sustained warmth with moisture.

CHAPTER V.

EARLY HISTORY.

It is not easy altogether to realise how very young the youngest of the British colonial dependencies are. Their histories are matters that are entirely comprised within the actual experiences of living men. Thirty-one years ago the young giant Victoria consisted of an European population of 177 people. Thirty-one years ago the whole settlement of Natal consisted of a dozen or so of Englishmen, striving to acquire an uncertain foothold upon a small patch of territory by negotiation with a barbarous and paramount native chief, who claimed the land by right of conquest, and had nearly depopulated its valleys and hills in establishing his dominion. It is pretty generally known that Natal is *Terra Natalis*—the Land of the Nativity—and that it received its name from the old Portuguese explorers, who first sighted its shores on Christmas-day, 370 years ago. The name has been retained ever since, to be appropriately and happily conferred upon the British dependency that is now growing up where the abandoned waste then lay.

The Cape of Good Hope was discovered by the

Portuguese navigator, Bartholomew Diaz, in the year 1487, just five years after the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. On the 19th day of November, in the year 1497, the Portuguese seaman, Vasco de Gama, rounded the stormy promontory in a tempestuous sea, with a small squadron of three ships, and sailed on into the Indian Ocean, on the first voyage that was ever made to India by this long sea route. While beating about on his way to the north-east, he made the land in the parallel of Natal, and on the 25th of December either lay within easy reach of, or landed upon, its shores. In old maps two headlands, nearly upon the 31st and 32nd parallels of south latitude, and some distance to the south of the present boundary of the colony, are marked as the "First" and "Second Points of Natal;" and between them lies another headland, distinguished as "the Point of Natal." It is not altogether certain whether these are spots which were seen and named by the old Portuguese discoverers; or whether they are simply headlands that have since been mistaken, by other and more recent navigators, for the land of Natal, in consequence of bearing a strong resemblance to certain of its prominent landmarks. However this may be, tradition marks, as the site of Vasco de Gama's Christmas visit, the inlet of smooth water which now forms the harbour of the colony, and which is bounded to the south by the bold and beautiful headland that bears at once the name of "the Bluff of Port Natal," and the "lighthouse which invites to the shelter."

During the two centuries which followed the discovery of Natal by the Portuguese, it was occasionally, although very rarely, visited by adventurous navigators. In the year 1683 its soil was certainly pressed by

British feet. An English ship was wrecked in that year near to Delagoa Bay, in the 26th parallel of south latitude, and the crew of eighty men made their way along the coast to the Cape of Good Hope, traversing Natal on their way, and carrying with them an interesting account of the region they had passed through. In 1686 a Dutch ship was stranded on the coast, just off the spot where the harbour of Natal is now established, and its crew lived for twelve months on the shore of the harbour, until they had built a small vessel from the fragments of the wreck. In this vessel, the first launch of the ship-yards of Natal, the shipwrecked Dutchmen sailed for the settlement at the Cape, but they left four Englishmen and a Frenchman behind them, of whom three individuals at least were afterwards taken away by a Dutch ship visiting the coast. The captain of this ship purchased land near the harbour from a native chief. This purchase was subsequently claimed on behalf of the buyer; but the chief who had effected the sale was dead, and his successor declined to ratify the bargain. About twenty years afterwards the Dutch formed a trading settlement at the same spot, but for some imperfectly-known reason the settlement was soon abandoned.

In the year 1823—that is, now forty-four years ago—an Englishman repeated the action of the Portuguese navigator of the fifteenth century. In that year Lieutenant Farewell, an officer of the Royal Marines, was engaged in surveying the coast of Africa between St. Lucia Bay and the Cape of Good Hope, and in the progress of his task visited the Bluff and Bay of Natal. He was impressed so favourably by its aspect, that on returning to Cape Town he endeavoured to *plan a scheme* for the occupation of the spot by a party

of traders. He managed to interest about twenty individuals in his adventure. The British Government declined to recognise or aid the undertaking. So the little band took independent ground, and proceeded upon its own responsibility. Mr. H. Fynn, a gentleman who has been known in the ranks of colonial society in Natal within the last eight years, preceded the rest of the party in opening negotiations for the acquisition of a convenient site with the native chief who claimed and exerted supreme sway in the territory. Mr. Fynn carried out his preliminary arrangements with a tolerable measure of success, and was allowed to erect huts for the accommodation of his colleagues upon the exact spot where the market-square of the seaport town of Durban is now established. Mr. Fynn's huts, therefore, belong to history as the primeval nucleus of this town. Mr. Fynn was soon joined by Lieutenant Farewell and the rest of his associates, and the first English lodgment in the new field of enterprise was accomplished.

The native chief whom Lieutenant Farewell and Mr. Fynn found in virtual possession of the territory was not, however, properly the original owner. His own territory lay further to the north; but he was at this time residing in a military kraal, or native post, that he had established as a frontier camp, about thirty miles to the northward of the present site of the port; and he had occupied the entire land, now the colony of Natal, by subordinate military posts, which had charge of large herds of royal cattle. The aboriginal inhabitants were at this time scattered in all directions, and saving the military posts of the conquerors, the land was desolate and waste. The series of circumstances which had brought about this state of affairs is,

perhaps, one of the most curious episodes in South African barbarian history, and worthy of brief narration, not only on account of the illustration it offers of the habits and conditions of wild life in the district, but also on account of the bearing it has upon the position and prospects of the large native population which now forms an integral part of the colonial community.

CHAPTER VI.

THE ABORIGINES OF NATAL.

FORTY years before the visit of Lieutenant Farewell, the district around the spot which is now the Port of Natal was in very different circumstances from those he found it in. It was not then desolate and waste, and watched by the predaceous glance of a warlike despot and spoiler looking out from his neighbouring lair. It was at that time densely peopled from the river Tugela to the rivers Umzimkulu and Umtamfume, the present frontiers of the colony, and from the Drakenberg mountains to the sea, by countless crowds of black-skinned Kafirs, who were gathered into clans, or tribes, under distinct chieftains. There were certainly not less than ninety of these original clans in this extent of country. A small tract of land lying immediately under the Drakenberg mountains, and between the sources of the Umzimkulu and Bushman's rivers, was the only space that was unoccupied.

These aboriginal Natal tribes were by no means of a warlike character. They were very much, indeed,

like what the black people are who are now living in the colony under the rule of Queen Victoria. They were essentially gentle and peaceful. They lived too densely packed together to be nomadic in their habits. They possessed cattle, sheep, and goats, dwelt in fixed habitations, and cultivated the ground after a rude fashion. They lived in clans, all speaking pretty much the same language; but each ranged under its own head, or chief, who exercised patriarchal sway over his people, and who had supreme power over their lives and properties, but who exercised that power in a mild way, and with some deference to a kind of public opinion. The disputes of these primitive people were quarrels rather than wars. The conflicts that arose from disagreements between tribe and tribe rarely lasted more than a few days. The old Kafirs who now dwell in Natal say, in speaking of this time, that "the army never slept away from its home." A single collision generally terminated the dispute. The lives of women and children were respected. Prisoners were held to ransom, and it was a common thing for the young warriors after a fight to send their spears and shields home by their companions, and to remain to prosecute some love-suit among the girls of the people they had just been combating with. There was no trace of military organisation of any kind. No one ever thought of plunder or devastation. A fight was simply the appeal to force for the settlement of a dispute. It was in no case the prosecution of a predetermined plan for the acquisition of spoil, or for the extension of dominion. This period was literally and truly the "golden age" of Natal.

But this golden age was not of long continuance: it soon passed away, and a very hard and unmistakably

"iron age" appeared in its place. When these simple and comparatively prosperous people dwelt in the territory which is now the colony of Natal, precisely the same state of things obtained for some distance both to the north and to the south. Other small tribes of a similarly peaceful character covered the country in both directions. But among these there was one which was situated on the Umfolozi rivers, a few miles beyond the great river Tugela, towards the north-east, which was destined to play a prominent part in altogether changing the aspect of affairs. This tribe was at that time somewhat distinguished by the number of its people, as compared with the size of other surrounding clans, but was not in any other way remarkable. It was known as the tribe of the Umtetwa, and was under the rule of an old chief called Jobe, who had two sons, Tana and Godongwana.

Jobe, who was waxing in years, had made his dispositions for the ultimate succession of Tana to his chieftainship. But upon a certain occasion it came to his knowledge that the young men were impatient for the succession, and were plotting for his dethronement. Not having altogether the moral qualities of his namesake without the *e*, the patriarch of old, Jobe thereupon determined to bring the insurrection to a speedy and sure end. He issued his orders that both the young men should be surreptitiously put out of the way while sleeping in their huts. The party, under the orders of the chief, came suddenly upon them in the night, and a brief struggle ensued, during which the elder culprit Tana was slain, but in the confusion Godongwana leaped the fence of the enclosure in which the hut stood, and disappeared in the darkness with an assegai wound in his back. He succeeded in

hiding himself in the tangled wilderness for a time, and finally escaped from Umtetwa land, and wandered on from tribe to tribe until he reached some sure resting-place in the far south.

In the fulness of time old Jobe died, and a new chief was seated in his place. But soon afterwards he was disturbed in his seat, for the refugee, Godongwana, reappeared upon the scene, riding upon a horse, tradition says, of a white colour, an animal which had never been seen in this region before. He proved that he was really Godongwana by showing the scar of the assegai wound in his back, and claimed the chieftainship as his birthright. After a brief conflict he managed to establish his claim, and was received by his tribe, and, in accordance with a prevalent custom, his birth name was then changed for a name of renown, and he thenceforth became "Dingiswayo," which signifies "The Wanderer."

The wanderer Dingiswayo brought back with him to his people something else besides the horse. He had been so far south that he had come into contact with the European settlements, and he had looked upon the doings of the strangers that he encountered there with an observant eye. Among other things, he had learned the power of military organization, and had acquired the art of disciplining men in banded regiments for purposes of offensive or defensive warfare, and he proceeded at once to create a little standing army for the Umtetwas.

Among the first regiments that he formed he enlisted a young volunteer, who had come to him for protection from a neighbouring tribe. Near to the Umtetwas, and also dwelling upon the Umfolozi rivers, and paying a sort of limited allegiance to their

more influential tribe, there was a very small, and at that time unimportant clan known as the Zulu tribe, under a chief bearing the name of Senzugakona. This chief had a son named Chaka, who had become troublesome to his father from his turbulent and adventurous spirit, and had found it expedient to remove himself quickly from his father's territory, and to place himself under the protection of his more powerful and travelled neighbour. Chaka at once took kindly to the tactics and plans of his patron, and, curiously enough, was soon very far in advance of his teacher. Dingiswayo, although imbued with the martial ideas which he had imbibed from the white man, and fully alive to the advantages that were to be derived from well-planned and managed aggression, nevertheless still adhered to many of the older and gentler customs of his race. He had no objection to attack his neighbours with a view to the levying of black mail from their territory, but he did not allow the slaughter of the women and children of vanquished tribes, and he did not habitually sweep away all their cattle. He merely occupied the territory of the vanquished so long as he found it convenient or profitable to do so, consumed its beeves and grain, and compelled the people to obedience. The young soldier Chaka, however, was not satisfied with this. He had fought in Dingiswayo's army in all its expeditions, and had rapidly acquired considerable renown and influence as a warrior, and, with the growth of his renown, had conceived the idea of a system which was to go far beyond Dingiswayo's in the creation of a powerful and widely-absorbing despotism. By the time he had perfected himself in his lesson his father had died, and he *was recalled to take his position as chief of the petty*

tribe of the Zulus. This occurred about the year 1810. At first he acted as a kind of ally to his old patron, Dingiswayo, and fought by his side; but in the year 1818 he joined the Umtetwas in an expedition against the Amandwandwa tribe, in which Dingiswayo was slain. The Umtetwas were vanquished in this encounter, and, after the death of their chief, found it to their advantage to shelter themselves under the rising chieftain of the Zulus. This was the first stage in the progress of the since powerful and renowned Zulu tribe.

With the accession of the Umtetwas to his own following, Chaka found himself strong enough to start on a career of conquest on his own account. From the first he had held that Dingiswayo's half merciful policy was a policy of weakness, and that the only safe course for a conqueror was perseveringly and ruthlessly to disorganize and destroy. If he struck at all he must so strike as to leave nothing that could rise up afterwards in retribution. In carrying out this idea Chaka adopted several very remarkable expedients. He banded all the young men of the tribe into regiments which were distinguished by the colours and patterns of their shields. He taught them to lay aside the long assegai, or lance, which had been hitherto thrown from a distance during an onslaught, and to wield in its stead the single short javelin permanently retained in the hand. He marshalled his soldiers into a close phalanx, distributed into body and wings, and whenever a regiment returned from an expedition foiled or repulsed, he decimated their ranks, or, in extreme cases, destroyed them entirely. He did not allow any of his soldiers to take wives until they had earned the privilege by a certain term of service and grown into

veterans. It was in this way that this remarkable savage transformed an eminently gentle, peaceful, and even indolent people into a warlike and aggressive horde. It was by this process that the really formidable Zulu Kafirs of the early part of the present century were created out of the mixed multitude of harmless and unwarlike tribes. Wherever there were cattle to be seized, or women and children to be destroyed, the short javelins and marshalled armies of the savage warrior appeared. Tribe after tribe of the surrounding territory melted away before the glance of his face, the men being either absorbed into his armies, and thus turned into "Zulus," or dispersed in the wilderness. Shortly before the arrival of Lieutenant Farewell upon the scene, the supreme sway of Chaka extended from Delagoa Bay in the north to the St. John's river in the south, a stretch of not less than 500 miles of coast. The incursions of the predatory despot were only checked in the north by the fever districts surrounding the low swamps of the St. George's river, and on the south by the close neighbourhood of the Cape colony. In this latter direction each tribe as it was attacked moved further to the south, and then temporarily took up new ground until with the growth of new power it was attacked again. It was this barbarian conqueror, in the zenith of his power, who was living in his military station on the banks of the Umhlali river, some thirty miles to the north of Durban, when the English adventurers came to negotiate for a trading settlement. It happened curiously enough that this remarkable man manifested no disinclination to receive and treat with the strangers. It is probable that he was too well satisfied with his own prowess to entertain any fear of the handful of

suppliant white men, and that he thought he should be able in some way to turn them to account ; at any rate, he encouraged them to visit him, and allowed them to form their settlement at the bay.

Mr. Fynn has since stated that when he landed at Durban not a single native hut or village was to be found anywhere in the land south of the river Tongaat, which was within half-a-dozen miles of Chaka's own frontier kraal. There were no cattle or gardens or growing crops. The entire country was a desolate wilderness. Occasionally a few half-starved and terrified stragglers would be encountered who were deriving a precarious and miserable subsistence from wild roots and shell-fish. It was a very rare thing, indeed, to see more than two natives together. In the hill regions some small remnants of the broken tribes still managed to hold together in concealment in the dense bush, and to drag on a wretched existence, dodging the emissaries of the conqueror from place to place, and occasionally dying of actual starvation. It is no inapt illustration of the state of abject misery to which these refugees were reduced that many among them undoubtedly became cannibals at this time. There is an old Kafir now living in Natal who tells that upon one occasion, when serving in one of Chaka's regiments, he came suddenly upon a party of the Amakungao tribe native to the place, near to the present village of Pinetown, and found them cooking in pots over a fire. Chaka's men made a sudden rush to possess themselves of the prize of the flesh-pots, and on examining the contents, discovered that they were filled with human flesh. Another man, also still alive in Natal, relates that when he was a boy he was seized by one of these cannibal parties at a spot very close to where the

Bishop of Natal now resides, and was made to carry a pot along the bank of the river, being told that it was to cover the vessel in which he was going to be cooked for his captor's dinner. The boy escaped the impending fate by jumping suddenly into the river into the midst of a herd of sea-cows, and, being a good swimmer, he avoided the spears of his pursuers by diving, and finally joined a party of his own people, who were hiding in a cave in the neighbourhood. He believes that his sisters met the fate that he eluded. A third man says that after a temporary absence from his own village he returned to it to find the gardens uninjured and the crops ripe; but the bare skulls of those of his relatives who should have gathered the crops were bleaching on the hill tops, the rest of their bones having been picked by a party of cannibals in his absence. About this period dogs were commonly eaten by the Kafirs, and the hyenas became so fierce and daring from feeding on human flesh that they boldly attacked both women and men, and not unfrequently carried away children.

Soon after the establishment of the English traders on the shores of the Bay of Natal, a few of these wretched refugees came out of their hiding-places, and attached themselves to the party of the white-skinned strangers. This formed the first nucleus of a gathering back of the old aboriginal inhabitants under the sanction and protection of the British presence. Within a year or two this black following of the English settlers had considerably increased in numbers, and among the individuals which composed it were some who had come from the ranks of the Zulus themselves. It was found necessary to report this fact to Chaka. But he gave a formal consent to these people remaining with

Mr. Fynn if the exodus from the ranks of his followers was stopped.

Five years after the arrival of Lieutenant Farewell's party, that is, in the year 1828, on the 23rd of September, Chaka's reign came to an end. He was assassinated at his camp, near the river Umhlali, while receiving a deputation from the Amamponda chief, Faku, who tendered his submission to Zulu power. Chaka's main army, after returning from a successful expedition against Faku, had been ordered off towards the north upon some sudden emergency, and Dingaan, the brother of Chaka, seized the opportunity of giving effect to a plot that he had been sometime hatching against the powerful chief. Notwithstanding his extraordinary career, Chaka was only 41 years old at the time of his death.

After the destruction of Chaka, Dingaan succeeded to the Zulu chieftainship, but some few of the military tribes from the first refused to acknowledge him. More and more of the native refugees, and many of the recusants from Dingaan's succession, flocked to the English settlement at the Bay. This very naturally led to disputes between Dingaan and the English, and in the year 1833 the English retired toward the south out of Dingaan's reach, quite into Faku's territory. Considerable changes now followed. The originator of the English settlement, Lieutenant Farewell, was removed from the scene. Mr. Fynn, who had succeeded him as the great English chief, accepted an appointment on the frontier of the old colony, and for a time turned his back upon the new settlement. But a new aspect and new vitality was given to it by the accession to its ranks of an enthusiastic missionary, Captain Allen Gardiner. In the year 1835, Captain Gardiner

induced Dingaan to agree to an amnesty being secured to all Zulu refugees, who at that time were associated with the English, on the condition that no more Zulus should be allowed to join them. Captain Gardiner, after the conclusion of this treaty, visited England, and brought back with him Mr. Owen, a clergyman of the Church Missionary society, who was allowed, as an act of special favour, to take up his residence in Zulu-land, near the principal kraal of Dingaan, upon the banks of a river which flows down into St. Lucia Bay. Upon one occasion, Captain Gardiner, in the spirit of the contract he had made with Dingaan, took back a party of Zulu fugitives who had come to the English settlement in infraction of the terms of the treaty, and had the wretchedness of seeing the whole party put to death before his eyes. Soon after this period, under the renewal of a better understanding with Dingaan, the English settlers returned to their old haunt at the Bay. At the time when this took place, the native following of the English was estimated to comprise not less than 1,000 adult men, capable of bearing arms. The settlement also, about this period, received the name which the town now standing on the same site retains; it was called Durban after Sir Benjamin D'Urban, the then governor of the Cape colony. From this time the English settlement at Durban was the rallying point around which the old scattered population of the district gradually collected, to form the nucleus of what has since become the accepted and orderly black community of the now existing colony. Circumstances soon occurred which made it simply impossible for the condition to be observed, that no more Zulus should be received by the English settlers. But in the meantime a new series of actors appeared

upon the scene, who had a very important part to play in the events which have combined to make this promising colony what it now is. A few words must now be devoted to the fortunes of these new agents.

CHAPTER VII.

THE DUTCH IMMIGRATION.

ABOUT the time when Chaka's assassination took place on the Umhlali, there was a party of Dutch farmers residing under British rule in the old Cape colony, who took grave offence at certain regulations which had been established to control the relations between the Dutch colonists and the natives. The Dutchmen had been for some time in the habit of following their own inclinations in these matters, treating their native servants and dependents just as they pleased, and some of these could not reconcile themselves to the necessity of submitting to the English sense of public morality and right. A number of them, therefore, determined that they would leave the British dominions, and march forth into the wilderness to find a new settlement, where they could be free from constraint. An advanced party of these disaffected farmers, led by two men who bore the names, Uys and Maritz, explored the land far towards the east, and finally looked forth from the ledge of the Drakenberg over the green slopes spread out for miles before them in the district which is now Natal. After a time they found a practical path through the mountains, and descended to the lower range of territory, and after further

adventure, found their way down to the English settlement at Durban, where they received a ready welcome. In the early part of the year 1836, a still larger band of Dutch immigrants, under Jacobus Uys, Hendrick Potgieter, and Pieter Retief, descended into Natal by another pass through the Drakenberg, and a good understanding was established between the two parties of settlers. Dingaan, the Zulu chief, had now removed his residence from the Umhlali to a place named Umgungunhloru, beyond the Tugela, and it was arranged that Pieter Retief should go there, and negotiate with him for the cession of a certain territory. The proceedings of Retief were facilitated by the presence of the English missionary, who had for some time resided near to Dingaan's place. Retief took seventy armed horsemen with him to support the negotiation, and it was stipulated that he should recover for Dingaan a herd of oxen that had been driven away by a predacious Mantatee chief, and that Dingaan should give the Dutchmen land in return for the recovered cattle. Retief fulfilled his share of the bargain, and brought back from a chief living beyond the Drakenberg, seven hundred oxen, and sixty horses. A treaty was then formally prepared by Mr. Owen, the missionary, and executed by Dingaan and his principal head-men; and Retief was invited to make a farewell visit to the Zulu chief within the enclosure containing his own private huts. In accordance with a rule of barbarian etiquette, the Dutchmen left their arms outside the royal enclosure, and were suddenly set upon in their unarmed state by several thousands of armed warriors who had been placed in ambuscade. The Dutch party was almost entirely destroyed, and Dingaan immediately sent a large army over the

Tugela river to complete the work of extermination there. The Zulu warriors spread themselves far and wide over the land, and simultaneously attacked small isolated parties of the Dutch, that had been left encamped in various situations. They surprised a considerable party that had established itself upon the Blaukranz river, and destroyed the whole by a sudden onslaught before any measures could be taken to resist the attack. The township of "Weenen," which now occupies a neighbouring site, was so named from the weeping and mourning which took place there when the news of the butchery was brought in. The victorious Zulus rushed on still farther to the south; but the remaining parties of the Dutch immigrants were now on the alert, and had converted their waggons into laagers, or extemporised fortifications, which the Zulus could not penetrate. The English at the Bay made a diversion in support of their allies, and sent a small party with 700 native warriors across the Tugela. This party was repulsed, and partially destroyed, and the English had to take refuge on board a small ship in the Bay. But in the meantime 400 more Dutchmen had come down from the mountains, and at last the immigrants found themselves strong enough to advance upon Dingaan. They were repulsed, however, in their first attempts, and had to retire into laagers among the Natal hills. Here they successfully held their ground against the Zulus who followed them. In the month of December of 1838, having been still further reinforced by their countrymen, 460 fighting men under Andries Pretorius and Carl Landmann once more advanced across the Tugela, and found Dingaan encamped with his entire force of 12,000 men near the Umslatoos river. The intrepid band of Dutchmen at

once attacked the Zulus, and after a severe conflict, routed them entirely, leaving, it is said, some 3,000 of the savages dead upon the field of battle. The victorious Dutchmen burned down the large kraal, or royal town, of Umgungunhloru, and swept back 5,000 head of cattle with them across the Tugela. With the pleasant consciousness that the power of the Zulus was now entirely broken, they proceeded to make themselves comfortable in the land of their adoption. They at once laid out the towns of Maritzburg and Durban, where they now stand. In the year 1839, the capital city of Maritzburg consisted of six small Dutch houses. The designation of the city was taken from the names of the two principal men who adopted it for their residence. These founders of the capital were Pieter Retief, and Gert Maritz. The Pieter of the one was prefixed to the Maritz of the other, and the town became, what it has ever since continued, Pieter-Maritzburg.

At the time of Dingaan's signal defeat one of his brothers, named Umpanda, was living on the Natal side of the Tugela, surrounded by a considerable number of Kafirs, who had reason, in common with himself, to desire not to be too near to the grasp of the despot. Umpanda, as had now become a very common thing with the younger brothers of reigning chiefs, was an object of suspicion and dislike to the barbarian potentate. He accordingly deemed this a favourable opportunity to make friendly advances to the white victors. These were well, although cautiously, received; and an alliance was at last concluded by which it was arranged that a combined force of Umpanda's Kafirs and of mounted Dutchmen should be again sent over the Tugela against the Zulus. Dingaan was encountered,

and again defeated, by this force, and had to fly for his life. Not long afterwards he fell beneath the lances of a hostile tribe residing in the neighbourhood of Delagoa Bay. This, for the time, ended the line of martial Zulu chiefs. The Dutch immigrants proclaimed their ally Umpanda supreme chief of the Zulus, and charged him 36,000 head of cattle for the service. They, however, reserved to themselves the lion's share of the conquered territory, for they claimed the whole land, from the St. John's river to Delagoa Bay; a tract very far exceeding the extent of the colony at the present time; and this they conceived the idea of erecting into an independent South African Republic.

CHAPTER VIII.

ENGLISH ANNEXATION.

THE policy of the British Government, in regard to the New South African settlement, remained altogether confused and uncertain up to this time. When Lieutenant Farewell first effected his settlement on the coast, the authorities at the Cape declined to give him any help or countenance. But at the close of the year 1838, and immediately after the first victory of the Dutch over Dingaan, Sir George Napier, the successor of Sir Benjamin D'Urban in the Cape Government, thought it well to send a small detachment of British troops to the settlement at Durban, with an intimation that the Dutch, who were really emigrant British subjects, could not be allowed to acquire independent territory from the natives. The detachment was com-

manded by Captain Jervis, who managed his mission so judiciously that the Dutch considered the presence of the British troops a boon rather than an injury or inconvenience. In 1839 the detachment was withdrawn, and the commandant, on leaving, addressed a letter to the Dutch commander, or landroost, wishing prosperity to the young community, and did so in language which the Dutchmen construed into the abandonment of any British claim of supremacy. The landroost accordingly, on the departure of Captain Jervis, hoisted the colours of "The Republic of Natalia."

When the Governor at the Cape heard of this proceeding he at once took measures to inform "The Republic" that he could not recognise its existence, and that although the British troops and ensign had been withdrawn, the British Government still looked upon the emigrants of Natal as their dependents, and claimed obedience and fealty from them. The Dutch demurred to these claims ; and after a prolonged negotiation 200 soldiers and two field-pieces, under the command of Captain Smith, were marched from the frontier of the old colony into Durban, to maintain the pretensions of the British Government. The track of this march can still be traced, making its way through the wild district bordering the colony to the south ; now descending to the sand bars at the mouths of the rivers, and now cutting its way through the tangled thickets which clothe the low hills overlooking the sea. On the arrival of the troops the Dutchmen gave signs of resistance. Reinforcements came down from the inland districts, Pretorius was appointed military commander, and an intrenched camp was formed at Congella, three miles from the British position, and at the head of the inner bay. Captain Smith summoned the

emigrants to disperse. The summons was not obeyed, and on the 28rd of May, in the year 1842, eleven days after the arrival of the soldiers, the Dutchmen themselves commenced hostilities, by seizing and appropriating 60 oxen belonging to the troops. The same night Captain Smith attempted a surprise of the Dutch camp by 100 soldiers and two guns, which were taken up to the exploit in a boat. He, however, found his antagonists very strongly posted, and with the bush strongly held by marksmen, and after a sharp conflict he was repulsed with the loss of several of his men and both his guns. Captain Smith had now, in his turn, to retire to his entrenchments, situated on the shore of the bay. Three days afterwards the Dutch seized the low sand-point, which commands the entrance of the harbour from the north side, and completely blockaded the British camp. Two small vessels, the *Mazeppa* and the *Pilot*, were at the time lying at anchor in the harbour, and served as a refuge for some of the English residents on the commencement of hostilities. Captain Smith made all the dispositions he was able with his small and insufficient force to sustain a regular siege. He applied to Mr. George Cato, who was then, as he still continues to be, one of the most energetic and active residents at the Bay, to find him native messengers to be despatched to the old colony for succour. Mr. Cato offered to be himself the carrier of dispatches, but Captain Smith preferred to retain his services on the spot, and it was finally arranged, through Mr. Cato's instrumentality, that Mr. King, who is also still a living colonist, should be sent off on the adventurous mission. Mr. King's horses were swum across the harbour in the night, and, although fired upon and pursued, he managed to get safely away, and, after a

wonderful ride of 600 miles through the wild country, which he accomplished in eight days, he reached the frontiers of the old colony with the news of Captain Smith's beleaguering. Mr. Cato was seized and carried up to Maritzburg, where he had the satisfaction of being placed in the stocks, and of being afterwards committed to close confinement, during which he amused himself by drawing sketches of British ships upon the walls of his prison. Sixteen days after the departure of Mr. King, the *Mazeppa*, under the command of Mr. Joseph Cato, found a favourable opportunity to slip her cable and run out to sea, accomplishing the passage under the fire of the Dutch from the point. The *Mazeppa* carried with her the women and children from the British camp, and went off in search of English cruizers at Delagoa Bay.

In the meantime Captain Smith resolutely sustained the successive attacks of his assailants, his very limited stores of provisions growing less and less day after day. By the 18th of June the little garrison was reduced to short commons of dried horse-flesh, biscuit-dust, and forage-corn. On the night of the 24th of June, the eye of the gallant captain was delighted with the apparition of three unmistakable rockets rising into the sky far out to sea. On the following night there were rockets again. The honour of the little garrison was saved, and help was at hand. A small schooner, the *Conch*, happened to be lying at Algoa Bay when Mr. King arrived with his dispatches. All available troops were immediately hurried on board the little vessel by the direction of Colonel Hare, and she was despatched to the relief; and in this way reinforcements reached the beleaguered camp within thirty days of the starting of the messenger sent to ask for them. The instant the

commander-in-chief at the Cape received news of the state of affairs, he despatched the admiral's flag-ship, the *Southampton*, with further aid, and the war-ship made such speed that she cast anchor in the bay at Durban within twenty-four hours of the time of the arrival of the little *Conch*. It was in this way that the rockets on two successive nights were accounted for. Colonel Cloete, who was in command of the relieving party, made immediate dispositions for the landing of his men, and the Dutchmen as quickly made their dispositions for drawing off their forces towards the interior. They at first made a stand about sixteen miles from Durban, where the village of Pinetown is now placed. But they retired upon Maritzburg as soon as Colonel Cloete advanced, and sent a deputation to meet him with the offer of terms of submission. The English soldiers were landed on the 26th of June, and on the 5th of July Colonel Cloete received the final submission of the insurgents at Maritzburg, and granted a general amnesty. The greater part of the troops were then re-embarked on board the *Southampton*, and Captain Smith remained in undisputed possession of the settlement. In the month of May of the following year, the brother of Colonel Cloete arrived with full powers as Commissioner to consider and arrange the claims of the Dutch. As there was considerable irritation still remaining among them, his proceedings were supported by a detachment of the 45th regiment of infantry. When the Commissioner reached Maritzburg he found a large party of armed Dutch emigrants from beyond the mountains waiting for him, under the impression that the British Government was about to claim the whole territory up to the Orange River. When he explained that his instruc-

tions were to limit the extent of the British territory to, the north by the Drakenberg range of mountains, this was accepted as an equitable base for settlement, and the greater number of the boers withdrew to their upland plains. The rest, about twenty-four in number, including among them, as the five who took the most active part in the settlement, Andries Pretorius, Stephanus Maritz, Dr. Poortman, P. M. Zietsman, and J. N. Boshof, acting as a council, or *volksraad*, agreed that Natal should be acknowledged to be a part of the British colony, and that within its limits there should be no distinction of language, colour, origin, or creed, and that slavery should be forbidden. In this way Natal became a recognised British dependency on the 8th day of August, 1843; that is, now twenty-four years ago. Thus for thirteen years Natal was occupied exclusively by a small band of English traders settled at the Bay, and by the scattered native population; and then for seven years it was a seat of Dutch immigration and Dutch conflict, first with the barbarous power of the Zulus of Dingaan, and afterwards with the civilised power of England.

CHAPTER IX.

ENGLISH COLONISATION AND RULE.

FOR some time after the submission of the Dutch emigrants to British supremacy, Captain Smith, advanced to the rank of major, retained political and military charge of the annexation, but the civil and judicial *affairs* were left practically in the hands of the Volks-

raad. At the end of the year 1847 Mr. Martin West arrived with the commission of Lieutenant-Governor; and upon this occasion several of the Dutch settlers again took exception to some of the arrangements that were made for the distribution and proprietorship of the land, and withdrew in disgust to the free territory beyond the mountains; others went half way, and sat themselves down in a dissatisfied and refractory mood in the remote uplands of Weenen and Klip River. An attempt was not long afterwards made to establish on their behalf an independent claim to that portion of this district which lies between the Tugela and Buffalo rivers, upon the ground that it had been distinctly sold to them by Umpanda, and that it had never formed a part of the territory ceded to the English. The British authorities refused to entertain this plea, and the boers who had advanced it deserted their homesteads in a sort of panic, first formed themselves into encampments, and then went off to their friends on the high plains beyond the mountains. In February of the year 1848 Sir Harry Smith, then Governor of the Cape colony, visited Natal as High Commissioner, and endeavoured to induce some of the Dutch who had taken offence to return and occupy land in the colonial territory. In the following year English settlers began to come in, under arrangements which will be more particularly alluded to hereafter. In 1850 Lieutenant-Governor West died in the colony, and Mr. Benjamin Pine succeeded him. In the year 1851 several resident magistrates were appointed in the different country districts. In 1853 Maritzburg was created a city and a bishop's see by the Queen's letters patent, and Dr. Colenso was sent out as the first Bishop of Natal. Municipal corporations were established in the city and

at the port in 1854; and in 1856 the greatest change of all was effected. Governor Pine's term of service had then expired, and in that year Mr. John Scott landed as Governor in the colony, with a royal charter constituting Natal a distinct colony, and establishing a legislative council, consisting of twelve elected and four nominated members. In 1859 public schools were established in the colony, and a superintendent of education was appointed by the government; and at the present time there are sixty-two schools under inspection, and receiving aid from the State. In the city of Maritzburg an endowment has been made for a collegiate school, and fine class-rooms have been erected, which are temporarily employed in the service of the government high school, until the arrangements for the permanent establishment of the college can be completed. The primary aim has been to sow schools broadcast through the scattered community of the colony, and to establish one high-class school in each large town; and this object has been actually attained to a very considerable extent.

About the year 1860 a public loan was contracted to enable the harbour of Natal to be improved by the construction of extensive piers, thrown out into deep water in the open sea, in such a way as to obviate the formation of the sand-bar which now encumbers the mouth of the fine natural inlet. The work was temporarily arrested, after some progress, in consequence of the failure of the contractor; but it is now being pushed on by the engineer of the Colonial Government, and a tramway has been formed to a stone quarry on the river Umgeni, to give facilities for getting material for the works.

Mr. Scott's term of office ended with the year 1864, and

Colonel Maclean succeeded him. The colonel, however, was unfortunately invalided soon after, and the government was administered temporarily by Colonel Bisset until May of the present year, 1867, when Mr. Robert Keate assumed the government. During Colonel Bisset's administration a small extension of territory was made by attaching to the colony the county of Alfred, a portion of the district before known under the general designation of No-man's-land, and lying beyond the river Umzimkulu. This territory was formally ceded to the British authorities by the Amamponda chief Faku some years since, but it was not occupied until this time. This county adds about one million of acres to the colony. A fine deposit of white crystalline marble has since been found in it on the banks of the river Umzimkulu, and promising lodes of copper ore have also been discovered just beyond the new frontier. Another very important event has marked the brief administration of Colonel Bisset. A fine lighthouse has been erected, and brought into operation on the noble bluff which stands on the south side of the entrance to the harbour.

It has been stated that after the destruction of the Zulu chief Dingaan by the Dutch immigrants, his brother Umpanda was set up in his place by the conquerors. Umpanda naturally entered upon his reign in the full spirit of friendship towards the men who had established him in his position; and when the Dutch power was superseded by the English, he transferred his friendly regards to the latter. He has ever since maintained the most amicable relations with his civilised neighbours, often looking to them for counsel in his affairs. He was never of a very martial character, and he has been growing yet more peaceful and seden-

tary with advancing years. He is still alive, and is nominally ruling over the Zulus ; but he has become of an unwieldy size, and frequently suffers from severe attacks of gout. In the meantime some of his sons have reached man's estate, and the eldest of them, named Ketchwayo, has shown some of the restlessness and genius of his uncle Chaka, and a considerable following of the young men of the tribe has gathered round him. Some of the other sons also have had their adherents, and from time to time strife, which the old and somewhat superannuated chief found himself unable to quell, has arisen between them. In the year 1856 one of these sons, Umbulazi, who was suspected of being also a favourite of his father, retired with his people to the neighbourhood of the Tugela, probably under the idea of getting near to the English frontier as a refuge in case of need ; but, before he could cross the river, he was suddenly set upon by a large party led by Ketchwayo, and after a brief conflict was slain with five of his brethren, and a considerable number of his people were either speared or driven into the swollen river and drowned. This happened in the month of December. The star of Ketchwayo after this naturally rose more and more into the ascendant, and the old chief became more and more powerless. At the time Umpanda was left so desolate that Ketchwayo had to send twenty men to attend upon him. In the month of November following the fight with Umbulazi, a great assembly of the people was held at Umpanda's kraal to consider the general aspect of affairs, and it was then determined that as the old chief had lost the use of his feet, Ketchwayo, who was active enough, should be "the feet" of the state, but that Umpanda should still be "the head," and do the thinking. Ketchwayo was

to be henceforth the administrative captain, although Umpanda retained the honour and dignity of nominal sovereignty.

There is one obvious element of confusion and trouble in this arrangement. The old superannuated chief has been from his earliest days a staunch friend and ally of his European neighbours, whether Dutch or English, and consequently the party which is rising into influence in opposition to his views, and upon the traditions of Zulu power and supremacy, looks with suspicion upon the civilised rule which has established itself on the other side of the Tugela. Among the Zulus, Umpanda and his grave old councillors are regarded as the representatives of civilisation and friendship with the English; while Ketchwayo is looked upon by the great mass of the young men as the true scion of Chaka, who is to bring back the days of past glory and wealth amassed through aggression and spoliation. The jealousy of English influence which is entertained by the party of Ketchwayo has been strengthened, and is in some small measure justified, by the fact that when Umbulazi and five other sons of Umpanda were destroyed on the banks of the Tugela, two others of the chief's sons, then too young to take actual part in the conflict, escaped with their mothers, and safely reached English territory through the Dutch states and by the upper passes of the Drakenberg. These young men have since been residing within the colony of Natal under the protection of the English Government, which has, of course, always replied to Ketchwayo's suggestions that they should be returned to him, that the unfortunate and the suppliant are never driven away from English soil. It is very natural that the young barbarian cannot

quite understand the broad spirit of English philanthropy, and believes that the British Government must have some deeper reason than this for charging itself with the care of these refugees. It is known that Umpanda continually says that as Dingiswayo came back from his sojourn among the white men to lay the first foundation of Zulu power, so assuredly will one of these lads, Umkungu, or Isikota, come back from his sojourn to bring the strength and charm of civilisation to the service of the Zulu people. Ketchwayo is reported, by those who know him personally, as some of the border English do, to be very shrewd and sagacious, and thoroughly imbued with the importance of having the countenance and support of the English; but he is, at the same time, compelled to maintain his prestige among his restless and ambitious followers by indulging in a little boasting and braggadocio. He is also very naturally opposed to the secession of Zulus from either his own or his father's following. In his resolution to arrest the wholesale exodus with which he has been threatened, he has not hesitated to adopt the most extreme measures of relentless cruelty. For a long time it has been known to the authorities within the colony that people on the other side of the Tugela are continually killed upon the mere suspicion that they are purposing to cross the border clandestinely.

In the year 1861 the Lieutenant-Governor determined to make an effort to put an end to this wretched destruction of life beyond the Zulu border by advising Umpanda formally to acknowledge the succession of Ketchwayo to the Zulu chieftainship after his own decease. The English Secretary for Native Affairs, Mr. Shepstone, went over to Umpanda's place, and a general meeting of the Zulus was summoned, and

Ketchwayo sent for. Ketchwayo obeyed the call somewhat unwillingly, and came at last with a following of some 8,000 young savages, all with a short lance concealed beneath their small shields. Ketchwayo's party were obviously suspicious of the good faith of the English authorities, and demanded the return of Umkungu and Isokota as a proof of the friendly intentions of the English. This was necessarily refused, and the meeting broke up in some confusion; indeed, all Mr. Shepstone's very large share of presence of mind and intimate knowledge of the native character was required to prevent a serious collision. Ketchwayo, though he had been insolent and overbearing in the assembly, was submissive and humble whenever he could get an opportunity of seeing Mr. Shepstone alone, and he was publicly acknowledged, under Mr. Shepstone's advice, to be the virtual successor of Umpanda, notwithstanding his turbulent behaviour. No improvement, however, followed in the one important point of preventing deeds of frequent violence towards those who were suspected of being too friendly to the old chief's ascendancy, or who attempted to free themselves from the savage thralldom by unauthorised escape. In the year following Mr. Shepstone's visit to Umpanda, information was brought to the authorities in Natal that Ketchwayo had trained a party of his young men to ride on horseback, an accomplishment not usual among the Zulus, and that he had planned a sudden raid into the neighbourhood where his brothers were living under British protection, with a view either to sweep them away or to destroy them before measures could be taken for their defence. The Lieutenant-Governor immediately removed the lads to a safe place, and sent a force of Natal Kafirs and a

company of soldiers to the border to the surprise and alarm of Ketchwayo, who now imagined that he was about to be invaded, and protested that he knew nothing whatever of the design that was attributed to him. At any rate, all that came of the affair was a transient alarm among the more timid of the colonists, a great fright to Ketchwayo, who is reported at one time to have moved some hundred miles away to the north-east, because an American ship chanced to pass along within sight of the coast in the direction of Zulu-land, and because small standing military camps of observation were established upon the Zulu border of the colony.

For some time before this occurrence the Colonial Government had itself endeavoured to lessen the immigration of disaffected Zulus by instituting the regulation that every Zulu who came into the colony as a refugee should be apportioned by the magistrate to some colonist for three years' service, and that cattle should on no account be allowed to be brought in with refugees, but should in every case be returned when driven across the river into the English territory. It forms a striking illustration of the strength of the desire of these people to find themselves free from the uncertainties and dangers of life under savage rule, that a very considerable influx of Kafirs from Zuludom still takes place, notwithstanding these restrictive measures. The experienced Secretary for Native Affairs, who has general charge of the native relations in Natal, has expressed his conviction that the mere abolition of the regulation now existing, which consigns fresh refugees to service for three years, and which prevents them from bringing their cattle with *them*, would be tantamount to at once crumbling

the remnant of the Zulu power into incoherent fragments.

The black population resident within Natal at the present time constitutes a very important element in the colonial community. These Kafirs are very numerous, but it is not easy to fix their exact numbers. The only means by which any fair approximation can be formed is by taking the number of huts that pay tax to the magistrates, and estimating that it is probable each hut contains a certain number of inmates. The number taken in this way is calculated to be somewhere between 170,000 and 200,000. These people are partly remnants of the aboriginal tribes which have returned to their old haunts under the guarantee and sanction of the British Government, and partly of refugees who have escaped from the Zulu districts beyond the Tugela, and have come voluntarily, and in spite of prohibitions, to transfer their allegiance from the savage chief to the civilised rule. They have been distributed into fifty-nine tribes or clans; of which forty-three are identical with the old aboriginal tribes of the district that inhabited the land before the disturbance of the Zulu invasion. Nine are new tribes formed by a fusion of fragments of old and otherwise dispersed ones, and seven are intrusive tribes that had no part in the territory before the Zulu invasion, but that have come in since the British possession, attracted by the advantages which civilisation affords.

These Kafirs live for the most part in huts, forming kraals, or native villages, which are gathered into special districts, or locations, that have been reserved for their use from the time of the settlement of the colony. But many dwell scattered abroad over the estates of the white settlers. In these huts and villages

the Kafirs live much in the same way as their ancestors did before the rise of Chaka's power. They have cattle, sheep, and goats, and gardens filled with vegetable produce and grain-crops. Each tribe has again, as of old, its own head, or patriarch, in most instances the direct lineal descendant of some former chief. There is, however, one very important difference between the old and the new *régime*—no savage despot can now ever again bring desolation to these simple tribes, and give the women and children to the flood and the spear, or to the tooth of the cannibal and the hyena. The several chiefs have taken ample security against the recurrence of such a fate, being now each and all the children of Queen Victoria. They are still chiefs in the sense that they are looked up to by their people as the traditional heads of their clans, having the power to settle petty disputes and punish petty offences, after the manner of their fathers; but they are now, by their own choice, lieutenant-chiefs in the place of being supreme chiefs. Each, while governing his tribe, is held responsible for his management to the general head of all the tribes, the lieutenant-governor of the colony. The supreme power has been transferred to the proper head of the state. All grave matters are referred to the courts of the magistrates; and even in petty cases that are adjudicated by the chiefs an appeal lies first to the resident magistrates, then to the Secretary for Native Affairs, and finally to the Governor himself in council. The tribes are subdivided into territorial districts, villages or kraals, and families, and each of these subdivisions has its own appropriate and responsible head, who looks to the chief man of the division next above him. This organisation is so complete that at the *present time* any order emanating from the Governor can

be immediately communicated to every native hut in the land, although it has necessarily to be transmitted entirely without the intervention of written documents.

The curious traveller who goes in the present day into the native districts of the colony, and among these people, can entirely realise what their state was at the end of the last century, before the Zulu invasion. The most notable differences are that the old karosses, or rude cloaks of skins, are being fast replaced by woollen blankets of English manufacture, and that iron hoes of Birmingham make may now be seen in the hands of the women in every garden. It must also be added that the golden age has really returned, for veritable money-bags are now amongst the Lares and Penates of the huts.

One of the most remarkable things in relation to this black population of Natal is the ready obedience which is yielded to authority. They seem to be familiarised with the idea of order and submission, from these being the states in which they have lived from time immemorial. From the period when the English finally assumed the rule in the colony, there have been none but the most trifling instances of insubordination on the part of Kafirs, and absolute or sustained resistance has been entirely unknown. In the year 1857 a quarrel took place between two petty chieftains residing in the Umkomanzi district, that led to a conflict in which one of the chiefs and twenty of his men were slain. The surviving chief, Usidoi, was summoned before the magistrate to be examined touching the affray. In the conviction that he would be held responsible for the deaths, he refused to obey the summons. He was then cited to appear before the Lieutenant-Governor. He was still afraid to render obedience, and sent verbal excuses. Upon this

a native force was despatched, under the command of the Secretary for Native Affairs, to look after him. He fled on their approach. He was thereupon formally deposed for recusancy; the tribe was fined seven thousand head of cattle, and a new chief, not of the same family, set over it. Four of Usidoi's men were killed in this expedition in a sudden collision, and one of the government Kafirs met with his death from accident. But at this trifling cost authority was vindicated. The tribe has ever since remained in orderly obedience to its new chief, and Usidoi has continued to live outlawed beyond the British boundary.

At the end of the same year a Kafir belonging to the tribe of the chief Matyan, in the Klip River county, died. The chief accused the brother of the deceased of having caused his death by witchcraft, and had him seized and bound. The man died of injuries he received at the time of his arrest, and Matyan was called to answer to the magistrate for the death. The offence was deemed a very grave one, because Matyan had before been in trouble on account of the death of an uncle and two sons under similar proceedings, and, after the infliction of a fine, had been informed that if anything of the kind occurred again, his own life would be in danger of the law. Matyan, mindful of this caution, refused to appear, and surrounded himself by armed retainers when the magistrate came to look after him. An expedition of government natives and volunteer troops was in this case also sent up to enforce the law and support the magistrate. Matyan and his entire tribe retired into the bush, and the government force passed through his location, and swept away seven thousand cattle which the tribe had been fined. *Thirteen of Matyan's Kafirs and two government Kafirs*

were killed in an attempt to rescue some of the captured cattle while in the act of being driven through an intricate pass. Matyan for some time remained concealed in the forest and refused to surrender himself; and twenty-five of his men were killed upon another occasion, when an attempt was made to apprehend him. He was then formally deposed and outlawed, and his tribe broken up on account of the countenance it had afforded him in his resistance. Matyan fled across the Tugela into Zulu-land, where he has remained ever since. In one endeavour which was made to apprehend the recusant the brother of the Secretary for Native Affairs had only thirty Kafirs with him, and Matyan was surrounded by three hundred followers of his own tribe, all fully armed. No injury, however, was done to the magistrate's party.

Last year (1866) the Colonial Government determined to take possession of the tract in No-man's-land lying beyond the Umzimkulu river, which had been ceded to the English by the Amamponda chief, Faku, years back, but which was not annexed at the time. Notice was accordingly given to the petty chiefs residing in the territory that the authority of the Queen would be proclaimed with the beginning of the new year. One chieftain only, Ukane, the head of the Amakolo, sent word back that he did not wish to have anything to do with the Queen. He alleged that he had been waiting some years in expectation that the Queen would look after him, and take care of his cattle for him; but that she had done nothing of the kind, and that he had accordingly been obliged to look to Faku for protection, and that he was now Amamponda, and not English. The acting Lieutenant-Governor answered him that in that matter he could

do as he pleased; but that if he was Amamponda, and not English, he must at once move off out of English dominion, and take all his belongings with him. He sent word back that he would not go. The Governor then fined him twenty head of cattle for disobedience, and told him that he must be clear away in seven days, as he was coming up himself to see that his place was vacant. At the end of seven days the Governor went and found himself and two of his men gone, but his women and all the rest of his people living tranquilly in their huts. He was simply pretending to be gone, and hiding in the close neighbourhood. The Governor informed the people that they must at once all go away beyond the river Umtamfume. Thereupon Ukane sent word that he was very sorry for his disobedience, and that he really was an Englishman, and not an Amamponda, and wished to stay in his own place. The Governor then fined him two hundred head of cattle. The fine was immediately paid, and the chief allowed to remain, and he is now quite amenable to the magistrate.

These are the only instances of trouble with the Kafirs that have occurred during a period of twenty-four years of British occupation. In each of these cases the only difficulty the authorities had was to limit the number of the obedient Kafirs who came out at their call to support them, and to vindicate the law. In reality the several Kafir tribes resident within the colony are suspicious and jealous of each other, very much more than they are of the British. Nothing short of some very deep and severe grievance could ever induce any number of them to act together in concert in opposition to the authorities. At the same time the organisation of the magisterial influence is so complete that the *slightest* murmur of disaffection in any remote kraal

would be sure instantly to find its way to the seat of government.

The Colonial Government in Natal has been just as fortunate in its external relations as it has been in its internal conditions. During the twenty-four years it has not had one serious difficulty with its neighbours. Two or three times a handful of Bushmen has descended out of the caves of the Drakenberg, and stolen a few horses from outlying settlers during the dark hours of the night. It has been stated that in the year 1862 the Zulu chief, Ketchwayo, was reputed to have planned a foray into the British territory for purposes of petty violence, but that the scheme did not take any practical effect, if it was ever really intended. In 1865 the Basutos and the Dutch farmers of the Orange River Free State were fighting over a dispute about boundary, and a party of armed Basutos came down suddenly into Natal, and swept away a quantity of cattle which had been sent through the mountains for safety by their Dutch owners. This marauding party systematically abstained from doing harm to English property. Great indignation was, however, felt at the insult to English territory, and the colonists would, in all probability, have themselves called the marauders to account with a strong hand, if they had not been restrained from doing so by the Governor of the Cape, who, as High Commissioner, exercises jurisdiction in all extra-colonial native relations. Moshesh, the chief of the Basutos, was ordered by the High Commissioner to restore the stolen cattle, and to pay an additional number as a fine for the insult. This restitution has been in part made, but there are further instalments yet to come in. This Basuto raid is the solitary instance in which Natal has found its native neigh-

hours really aggressive during the entire period of its history as a colony.

The government of the colony is carried on under the responsibility of a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Queen, and advised by an Executive Council, consisting of the Commandant of the Troops, the Colonial Secretary, the Secretary for Native Affairs, the Chief Justice, the Attorney-General, and the Treasurer. Money estimates are submitted to the Legislative Council, composed of twelve elected members and four members of the Executive Government, by the Governor, and are confirmed or rejected by it. All laws are made by this Council, but require for their establishment the approval of either the Lieutenant-Governor or the Queen. The laws are administered by a Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and two Puisne Judges, and by a Magistrate's Court in each county or magisterial division. There are at the present time eleven magistrates residing in the several districts. The orders of the magistrates are carried into effect chiefly by bands of native policemen. The Lieutenant-Governor has at his command, for the enforcing of order and for purposes of defence, half a regiment of imperial infantry, a troop of the Cape Mounted Rifles, a small service of artillery, several troops of volunteers raised among the colonists, and any number of the natives that may be required to act under the orders of the magistrate.

The revenue of the colony is derived from the rent and sale of crown lands, transfer dues on property that changes its owners, stamps of various kinds, the post-office, a hut tax paid by the natives for each hut inhabited, auction dues, licenses to certain trades and professions, and for special purposes, port and harbour *dues*, and a customs duty upon articles imported.

CHAPTER X.

COMMERCIAL PROGRESS.

THE commercial history of the colony of Natal can scarcely be said to relate to more than twenty years. As recently as the year 1840 the white population of the colony did not exceed 6,000 individuals, and those 6,000 were almost entirely Dutch, who confined their attention exclusively to feeding oxen upon large runs of pasture-land. Upon the annexation of the colony to British territory, a very large proportion of this first white population again trekked away over the mountains. When Sir Harry Smith visited Natal as High Commissioner soon after the battle of Boom Plaatz, which he won over the insurgent boers on the frontier of the old colony, the population had fallen to a very low ebb; and in order to arrest the outflow, he at once offered free land-grants of 6,000 acres in extent to any Dutch family that would come and settle on them. Under this inducement the stream again turned, and many Dutch farmers availed themselves of the offer. The greater number of large six-thousand acre farms in the upland districts of Natal, now held by private owners, were acquired in this way; and these farms continue to be the stronghold of the Dutch section of the community, although some of them have been since sold to English purchasers. The English element remained but a very subordinate feature in the colony until the year 1847, when the first attempt at anything like a systematic introduction of settlers from England was made. In that year a gentleman named Byrne formed a kind of association in England for the purpose, and struck out a plan of assisted colonisation

which was at once approved and accepted by the Government. The essential basis of this scheme was, that Mr. Byrne and his associates deposited £10 for every adult immigrant that they introduced into the colony, and then received fifty acres of crown land as a consideration for the payment; of which land they gave twenty acres to the immigrant, and retained thirty acres for themselves as their remuneration for charges and service. The Government subsequently added twenty-five other acres to the immigrant's allotment. Other gentlemen, named Morewood, Pelly, and Lidgett, soon followed the example of Mr. Byrne, and in this way some half-dozen large ships were speedily freighted, and about 2,500 people introduced as settlers. The average quantity of land actually transferred to each family of these immigrants under these arrangements proved to be seventy acres. The scheme was crude, ill considered, and imperfect. The land apportioned to the immigrants was cut up into clean parallelograms, without any consideration for its character and fitness, so that some settlers actually received the summit of a rocky knoll for their share, and the site of their future homesteads; no distinction was made between lands adapted for tropical productions, and lands suited for ordinary farming operations; and, worse than all, the larger portion of the land, instead of being appropriated to the service of the actual settlers, was absorbed by speculators, who had their own views of the use they intended to make of the acquisition. There were, perhaps, reasons enough in these facts, without the addition of the further objection that the quantity of land granted was in itself too small to secure the ultimate prosperity of the settlers, especially at a time when sugar, coffee, and even arrow-root were unknown among the colonial

industries, to account for the failure which finally befell this early attempt at a systematic settling of the land. Very few indeed of these early adventurers stopped upon, or even used, the lots apportioned to them. Still there remains the very memorable result that the introduction of these people, even under these untoward circumstances, proved to be of infinite service to the young colony. It gave the first impulse to trade and industrial activity; and it must be added, that very few indeed of the immigrants so introduced failed in the end to make good their hold upon the place. Very many of the most prosperous colonists now in Natal were among the men who were attracted thither by the operations of Mr. Byrne and his immediate successors.

When these immigrants of Mr. Byrne began their enterprise in Natal, the pursuits that were open to them, whether in the direction of agriculture or of trade, were of the lowest class and most limited scale. Nevertheless, the good influence of their presence was manifest almost immediately in the general aspect of affairs. In the year 1846, thirty vessels, averaging 117 tons each, had brought goods to Natal worth £40,000. During the six years which followed the year 1848, the value of imports, in round numbers, was—1849, £56,000; 1850, £111,000; and upon the average, £110,000 for the years 1851, 1852, 1853, and 1854. In the year 1855, the value of the imports fell to £86,000 on account of the stream of immigration set up by Mr. Byrne's proceedings having been stopped, and of many adventurous colonists having been induced to set out for Australia in consequence of the recent discovery of the gold-fields. The general importation of merchandise had continued until the markets were

found to be overstocked, when farther introduction was necessarily arrested, to the detriment of the customs revenue. It then, however, happily became obvious that there were numerous branches of industry, hitherto not dreamed of in connection with Natal, which could be profitably prosecuted upon its land. First it was proved that the finest arrow-root could be grown and manufactured upon the coast; then it became apparent that sheep would live upon the upland hills, and that the sugar-cane was at home near the sea; and after this it was found that coffee was even more easily and surely produced than sugar. Under these encouragements, the population slowly, but steadily, increased, and the value of imports again rose rapidly. The imports were, for

	£		£
1856	102,000	1862	449,000
1857	184,000	1863	473,000
1858	173,000	1864	591,000
1860	354,000	1865	455,000
1861	402,000		

The value of colonial produce exported was, for

	£		£
1848	10,060	1858	91,000
1850	15,000	1860	139,000
1852	20,000	1864	220,000
1855	45,000	1865	210,000
1857	78,000		

The nature of the produce which it has thus been so recently discovered that Natal can furnish, as a reward for the employment of capital and industry, will be tolerably well expressed by the following estimate, drawn up as an approximation towards the probable yield of the several articles named for the year 1866. It must, however, be understood that this estimate is only approximate, so far as actual quantities are concerned,

as it is not yet possible in the young colony to command exact returns.

Indian corn	425,745 bushels.
Wheat	16,715 "
Kafir corn	45,560 "
Oats (besides green forage).....	3,000 "
Barley.....	2,720 "
Beans	2,340 "
Buckwheat.....	1,585 "
Round potatoes	42,915 "
Sweet potatoes	102,870 "
Sugar	5,705 tons.
Coffee	59,060 lbs.
Arrow-root	2,835 cwts.
Tobacco	38,425 lbs.
Cotton	294,730 "
Chili pepper	9,440 "
Clipped wool	358,700 "
Butter.....	148,639 "
Cheese	3,710 "
Cured bacon	57,500 "
Dried fruit.....	3,955 bushels.

It was also estimated that in this year there were of live stock in the colony—

Horses	15,300	Kafir sheep	14,920
Horned cattle	303,350	Mules	150
Sheep	197,960	Goats	151,825

The revenue of the Government returned for the last five years was—

1861	£ 114,087	1864	£ 152,241
1862	109,299	1865	176,295
1863	123,087		

The return for the year 1865, however, must not be taken as indicating a continuance of the general run of increasing prosperity, for it included certain items of an irregular kind not properly belonging to the income of one year. The revenue of the following year was below that of both the preceding years by several thousands of pounds. The reason for this is that

to bring out their friends to join them, and have been aided in doing so by the Government bearing a portion of the cost. By this means about 1,580 statute adults have been introduced into the colony within the last nine years. The number so introduced in each of these several years was :—

1858	106	1863	256
1859	121	1864	113
1860	153	1865	92
1861	304	1866	38
1862	402		

It will thus appear that the influence of this plan in augmenting the colonial population increased during five years up to the year 1862, but that since that time its operation has been gradually telling less and less, until immigration has again come virtually almost to a stand-still. Nevertheless by these two plans, Byrne's scheme, and assistance given to settlers to bring out their connections, at least one-fourth of the European population now in the colony has been attracted to its shores.

CHAPTER XI.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE COLONY.

THE various circumstances, conditions, and influences which have been described and explained in the preceding chapters, have all had to do with bringing about the state of affairs that exists in the colony of Natal in this present year, 1867. It now remains to tell briefly what that state is.

In the first place, it must be understood that there

are three tolerably distinct elements in the colonial community—the Dutch element, the English, and the native. The population, as a whole, is made up of these parts.

The Dutch element is chiefly confined at the present time to the upland districts. Many of the boers or Dutch farmers, who originally came down from the Free State, or from some of the districts of the old colony, still retain the large farms they acquired at that period, and for the most part live upon them in their old patriarchal way. They now constitute a much smaller number than the English, although their families are not unfrequently large. But it has become a fashion with them to sell their homesteads to Englishmen, and move further back into the wilderness. As a rule, they do not like close contact with their more civilised and restless Anglo-Saxon neighbours, and, at least so far as the actual colony of Natal is concerned, they are gradually getting themselves out of their way as they can make advantageous reasons for doing so. Very few indeed of the class now remain in the coast districts, or in the county of Maritzburg. The Dutch remnant is principally found in the counties of Klip River, Weenen, and the Umvoti.

The Dutch boers are admirably fitted for their office of pioneers by the very peculiarities that render them unwilling to submit to the habits, necessities, and constraints of a more advanced social condition. They are self-contained and self-reliant, but rude. They live in fairly commodious houses erected by their own and their children's hands; and their principal occupation is looking after the cattle, horses, and sheep that roam free over the wide pastures of their holdings. They plant the orange and the peach tree round their

residences, but they do comparatively little in the cultivation of the ground. Their wealth consists principally in the natural increase of their live stock. They ride and shoot well, have a sound judgment in the selection of suitable pasture, and a keen eye for getting a waggon, with its long team of oxen, through the wilderness; but they trouble themselves very little about other results of experience or of applications of science. They consider that the world is better flat than round, and hold education to be the means whereby children are prepared for the communion of their church. All learning beyond what seems to be necessary to this end they look at with suspicion or contempt. Hence it is quite impossible that they should keep pace with men who pin their faith on unceasing progress, and whose trust is in unfettered movement. Such men are all very well to drive bargains with, and to take money from; but they are not men to live with more than circumstances may compel. Hence the Dutch element in the colony grows less and less as the English element enlarges and strengthens.

The large family of the Dutch boer assembles morning and evening for the principal meals, and at these times a free hospitality is accorded to the traveller and visitor. The boer is by no means a bad neighbour to those who meet him in his own vein. It need scarcely be said that very much may be learned from him in his own peculiar walk.

The Dutch boer has generally managed to acquire a farm of 6,000 acres; he does not like to deal with anything less. His territory is, therefore, a little more than nine square miles in extent. Where the Dutch district is pretty well filled up, each man lives at least *three miles* away from his nearest neighbour. There-

fore, in these districts of the colony, this is what meets the eye : broad swelling hills of pasture stretching out, for the most part, unbroken by fence or enclosure, but dotted here and there with cattle, horses, and sheep, with houses surrounded by fruit-trees and small enclosures of broken ground at distances of three or four miles apart.

In other districts of the colony the houses are often nearer together ; but still, in the main, the Englishman gets hold of as large a domain as he can. Very many of the English farms are of 3,000 acres in extent ; and then the general aspect of the country is pretty much the same as in the Dutch districts. The chief difference is that the houses occur somewhat more frequently ; that the cultivated enclosures are larger ; and that clumps of the blue gum-tree of Australia mark from afar the position of the buildings in the landscape. The farm itself still stretches on through mile after mile of swelling pasture ; and there is no other division between one man's farm and his neighbour's excepting an imaginary line drawn between huge piles of stone that are so distant they can hardly be seen from one another excepting through the telescope.

In many parts of the colony the general aspect of the country is still more desolate, in consequence of farm after farm lying unoccupied from the owners holding them back for future sale at prices which cannot now be realised.

In a few places, even in the uplands, two or three dozen dwellings have got themselves planted in tolerably close proximity, and fences and trees extend over a stretch of a mile or two. These are the townships, or, more properly, the villages of the colony. These exceptional centres of settlement are, in the

uplands, the places marked in the map as Ladismith, Weenen, Greytown, York, and Richmond. The capital, Pieter-Maritzburg, is a town a mile and a half long and a mile broad, with wide streets, numerous excellent houses with gardens and blue-gums, and a population of about 3,000 Europeans. The suburbs of Maritzburg are now getting to be dotted over with houses, used as country residences by the inhabitants.

The houses of English settlers are still for the most part rude. Many of them are constructed of wattle and daub, with overhanging roofs of thatch wide enough to form a verandah, which is often partially enclosed into smaller outer rooms ; but many of them also are made of sun-dried or burned brick, and have more pretensions to comfort. The settler almost always, in the first instance, builds his house of the primitive, cheap, and easily-managed wattle and daub, and then advances gradually and by slow degrees to the luxury of more commodious and substantial erections. The most thriving settlers have always a cluster of rude kitchens, stables, offices, sheds, and other farming conveniences surrounding their houses.

In the coast districts the population is considerably more dense. In the uplands the chief signs of industrial activity that meet the eye are comparatively small patches of Indian corn, green oat forage, or wheat, and scattered herds of cattle, troops of horses, and flocks of sheep running over the open pasture. On the coast three or four hundred acres, in the stead of three or four thousand, form a large holding ; in many places houses stand comparatively near, and one man's plot of cultivation is already continuous with his neighbour's. Here and there valleys and plains are filled with the sugar-cane as far as the eye can reach, and

the hill-sides are ornamented at very frequent intervals with ever-spreading tracts of the well-trimmed coffee, hedged in and sheltered by orange-trees. Other more limited tracts of tobacco, arrow-root, cotton, and capsicum are also encountered. In this district the banana and the pine-apple are found in every garden, and in some of the first-settled districts there are fine orange groves in full bearing. In the uplands the intervals between the occupied and cultivated regions are swelling hills of bare pasture, wood being commonly found only on the highest hills, or in moist ravines leading down from them into the valleys; but on the coast the intervals between the occupied lands are filled in with tangled thickets of evergreens, enlivened by flowering shrubs, and interlaced with monkey ropes and twiners.

In the coast districts a numerous population of Indian coolies is now also encountered. Nearly 7,000 have been brought from India under contracts of five years' service on the plantations. These coolies live for the most part on the estates of the masters to whom they have been assigned. Some of them have already completed their full terms of service, and have made their way into the principal towns, where they readily take domestic service at higher rates of wages. These coolies can hardly be said to be superior to the Kafirs as a race; but they are much more advanced in civilisation and training, and more patient of constraint and control than the Kafirs, and they therefore constitute a very welcome addition to the labouring portion of the community.

Stations of missionaries occur in various parts of the colony. These missionaries are of different persuasions and countries: Church of England, Roman Catholic,

Wesleyan, Independent, German Lutheran, American, Hanoverian, and Norwegian. Some of the stations are placed in the neighbourhood of the more populous and advanced settlements, but more of them are in the still wild districts, where there are scarcely any people around but the natives. The missionary builds a house for himself and his family in the chosen locality; and the natives then cluster round in huts, and not unfrequently in square-built houses, placed on ground set apart for the use of the settlement by the Government. These resident missionaries afford a generous and free hospitality to travellers passing through the neighbourhood, when, as often happens, their residences are the only places of entertainment and shelter to be found.

The European population scattered abroad over the land of Natal amounts to about 17,000 individuals at the present time. This gives about one person to each square mile of land. The greater proportion of the number is made up of English, Scotch, and Irish. Dutchmen, who are principally African born, constitute a much more limited section of the community. A few Germans and American and Norwegian missionaries complete the tale. The native constituent of the colonial population is at least ten times more numerous than the European. The natives dwell almost entirely in villages of huts, built on the hill-sides of certain reserve grounds, or locations, set apart for their accommodation in various parts of the colony. These native locations are of considerable extent, and in riding through them the traveller finds no sign of a European house, or of European cultivation. He merely comes, from time to time, upon circles of straw huts looking very much like huge bee-hives set down methodically

upon the green slopes, with rudely-enclosed gardens of Indian corn, millet, and sweet potato, more or less near to them. Some few of the natives now prefer to establish their huts upon the lands of white proprietors, to whom they then look up for countenance, and to whom they render a certain amount of service for monthly wages. The districts set apart for the use of the natives are found principally near the confluence of the Buffalo, Tugela, and Mooi rivers; in the valley of the Lower Tugela; on the Umvoti river; in the wild Inanda region that lies on the inland border of the southern half of Victoria county; between the Umlazi and Umkomanzi rivers on the coast; and about the sources of the Umlazi river, under the Zwart Kop mountain, near Maritzburg.

The colony of Natal has been distributed into territorial divisions, or counties, for magisterial and electoral purposes. Five of these divisions are the inland counties of Newcastle, Klip River, Weenen, Umvoti, and Pieter-Maritzburg. The other counties lie upon the coast, and extend for about sixteen miles inland. They are Durban, Victoria, Alexandra, and Alfred. The first three-named are the seats of the sugar manufacture and the coffee growth. Durban and Victoria, with the exception of Maritzburg city and its suburbs, are the most settled and advanced parts of the colony. Victoria lies between the Tugela and Umgeni rivers; Durban county between the Victoria and the Umkomanzi rivers; Alexandra between the Umkomanzi and Umzimkulu rivers; Alfred is between the Umzimkulu and Umtamfume rivers, and was only formally annexed to the colony at the commencement of the last year. It is, therefore, for the present almost without white settlers. The principal centres of occupation within

these counties are in Victoria, the Dutch settlement of New Guelderland, and the English settlements of Victoria, Verulam, and the Little Umhlanga, in all of which sugar is now extensively grown; in Durban, the Port and its suburbs, which are nearly as populous as the capital, the sugar flat of the Isipingo, and the village of Pinetown on the high road from the Port to the capital; in Alexandra, the Umkomanzi and Umzinto settlements, both planting cane and producing sugar. In these counties there are interesting native settlements, where the Kafirs are growing civilised and entering upon industrial occupation, upon the Umvoti, the Umhloti, and the Amanzimtote rivers.

The county of the Umvoti is chiefly composed of the hills that surround the sources of that river, and of the slopes that run down into the valleys of the Mooi and the Tugela rivers. Some of the hills are nearly 4,000 feet high, and afford excellent pasture for cattle, horses, and sheep. This county was a favourite locality with the Dutch boers from the first, and there are still many wealthy families of them residing in it. At the present time, about ninety-three farms out of 154 are occupied in this district, and these ninety-three farms carry 1,000 sheep apiece. Its chief social centre and the seat of its magistracy is the little village of Greytown, so named after Sir George Grey.

The county of Maritzburg is by far the largest in the colony. It extends from the Umvoti county to the Drakenberg mountains, and to the river Umzimkulu in the west and south. It comprises the hills that lie around the sources of the Umgeni, Umlazi, and Ilovo rivers, and between the upper portions of the Umkomanzi and Umzimkulu rivers. Some of its hills are 5,000 feet high. The entire district is pastoral and

agricultural. Its principal centres of settlement are the capital and its suburbs, standing 2,000 feet high and fifty-four miles from the sea ; York, on the road from the capital to the Umvoti ; and Richmond, on the Ilovo, on the road to the Umkomanzi. Beyond the Umkomanzi river the county is mainly composed of unoccupied crown land.

The county of Weenen, and the northern counties of Klip River and Newcastle occupy the basin drained by the Tugela and its confluent. The upper Tugela separates Weenen from Klip river ; and the Biggarsberg range of hills divides Klip river county from Newcastle, named after the duke of that title, who was for some time Colonial Secretary. These counties are all pastoral and agricultural districts. There are some few thriving English farmers in them, but still more Dutch. The northern counties are drained by the Buffalo, Sunday, and Klip rivers, and Weenen by the Mooi, Bushman's, Blaukranz, and Little Tugela rivers, all affluents of the Great Tugela. Ladismith, so named after the wife of Sir Harry Smith, is the principal centre of the Klip River county. It is a prosperous village, passing into the condition of a little town, and is chiefly occupied by English merchants. Weenen is the old centre of Weenen county. It is a kind of village, lying in a warm thorn-encumbered valley, surrounded by high hills, and occupied mainly by Dutchmen. The climate is so warm in this sheltered upland valley that the orange ripens as well in it as on the coast.

Much the larger portion of these several counties, consisting altogether of eleven million acres of land, is now in the hands of private proprietors. About four millions and a half of acres remain yet in the hands of the Government. Of these, some two millions and a

half lie to the south of the Umkomanzi in one continuous stretch, extending from the mountains to the sea, and therefore comprising in themselves all the diversities of climate already alluded to. This crown district is entered by a fair road which runs from the city of Maritzburg, through the settlement of Richmond, and along the hills about forty miles from the sea. The country has been recently examined by the Surveyor-General and the Colonial Engineer, and they report that it is well adapted for the purpose of settling immigrants, that there is land in it in various directions suitable for all kinds of cultivation, and that the whole tract is capable of being made of easy access by an outlay of about £2,500 expended upon the approaches. An old and experienced settler, who knows a large portion of the district well, says that it is healthy for all kinds of stock, that it is not subject to drought, nor to great heat, that it is consequently favourable for the raising of turnips and similar green-food crops for winter use, and that it is eminently adapted for pastoral purposes. The settler in this district may look to derive income from sheep, wool, dairy produce, bacon and hams, the increase of cattle and horses, and from sundry other sources of inferior importance.

In addition to these two millions and a half of acres south of the Umkomanzi river, the Government has also half a million of acres in the upper part of Weenen county, lying about the sources of the Little Tugela, Bushman's, and Mooi rivers, and under the mountains; 600,000 acres in the county of Newcastle, to the north of the Biggarsberg mountains; and a small patch of 8,000 acres in the county of the Umvoti, and of 12,000 acres in the county of Victoria. Allusion to *the plan now proposed for occupying and settling this*

remnant of crown lands will be made in the ensuing chapter.

From the time when English immigration first began to set in to Natal, until about two years ago, the colony enjoyed a period of almost uninterrupted advance and prosperity. Fresh objects of industrial occupation offered themselves in succession. Building proceeded rapidly in all directions, and artisans found steady employment at wages of 8s. and 10s. a day. Since that time, however, a change has come over affairs. Trade and the more costly forms of agricultural production have become embarrassed. The public revenue has been seriously diminished. Many men, and especially such as have been concerned in speculating to make large returns out of small capitals, have failed. Some of the banks have deemed it prudent to wind up their affairs, and a considerable number of artisans have been thrown out of employment in the principal towns. Some of the industrious and thrifty settlers, who have steadily adhered to their proper work of cultivating their homesteads and looking after their stock, have in some measure suffered from the failure of the traders and merchants they had had dealings with; but upon the whole, much less than their neighbours, and they still have a bright prospect before them. Indeed, the difficulties that have recently come over Natal, in common with other colonies, seem to have had the immediate effect of stimulating that best and surest of all industries—industry upon the land. It is expected that this year the ground in cultivation, and the valuable produce extracted from it, will greatly exceed that of former years. In such a state of things the need has been very urgently felt of quickening the useful occupation of waste land, by giving encourage-

ment and assistance to immigrants of the right kind. The spirit of what the Colonial Government is now doing in this particular will be best understood after a few words have been devoted to accounting for the stagnation that has fallen upon the commercial and monetary affairs of the colony.

CHAPTER XII.

GOVERNMENT PLAN OF IMMIGRATION AND LAND SETTLEMENTS.

It is by no means difficult, on taking a retrospect from the vantage-ground of the present time and the teaching of recent experience, to point to the series of circumstances which has combined to bring about the reverses and complications that the colonial community has now to contend with. The first step in the creation of these difficulties was taken years ago, when large tracts of land, without any distinction as to whether that land was situated on the approximately tropical coast, or in the pastoral uplands, were given into the hands of Dutch farmers. It is scarcely possible now to realise clearly that there was so recently a time when the complaint that 6,000 acres of land was not enough for a family to live upon, was met by an additional grant of an extra 2,000 acres. Very much of the land thus profusely squandered upon the rude boers has since been purchased by Englishmen for small sums, and is now held unoccupied, upon the remote contingency of being able to sell it some day for high prices. Byrne's emigration plan, for the first time, disproved

this idea of the necessity of six-thousand acre farms for men who had to find a competency, and in this way did excellent service to the colony.

But soon after the introduction of Byrne's immigrants a fresh injurious influence came gradually and very subtly into play. The prospects of the newly-discovered industries on the coast were so bright, and land was acquired so easily, that men were tempted to enter largely into undertakings which they had not enough capital to carry on. Even the merchants of the place embarked extensively in these pursuits and in the purchase of land. Then the great success of the first banking establishment led to the multiplication of banks, and the introduction of capital in too ready an abundance. The first sugars that were produced in any quantity in Natal, from certain fortuitous circumstances, realised £42 sterling a ton in the market. This opened such apparently rich promise to the planters that they immediately borrowed money, occasionally at twenty per cent. interest, and sometimes upon even higher rates, to increase their plantations and improve their machinery, and to introduce Indian coolies in large numbers. Two rocks must here then be especially pointed to as the obstacles upon which commercial adventurers in Natal have made shipwreck. First, the borrowing money in undue proportion to their actual capital, under the temptation of seemingly ready and certain profit; and secondly, the purchasing of large tracts of waste land that cannot possibly be turned to account, instead of using the capital profitably upon small but sufficient holdings. During the period of too glaring prosperity, merchants of course, and very naturally, imported wares of all kinds freely, and so overstocked the market. This increased the mischief when the

pinch came, and obviously accounts for the sudden and marked diminution in the public revenue (so largely dependent upon the customs dues) during the last two years, after so long a term of steady augmentation year by year. In connection with diminished prices, arrested immigration, and the mercantile crisis in England, there came hostilities between the Dutch settlers in the Orange River Free State and the Basutos just beyond the northern frontier of the colony, which entirely stopped all trading operations in that direction, and still further hampered a considerable number of the merchants. Nevertheless it is an unquestionable fact that settlers upon the land in Natal have suffered far less seriously from the reverses of the day than other branches of the community, unless where they have been speculating unduly, or borrowing money largely at high rates of interest. Nearly all who have confined themselves steadily to their proper work on the land are comfortable and prosperous.

In alluding to the winding up of two of the banking institutions in Natal, one of the oldest of the local journals remarks upon the several subjects that have been just touched upon, as having a practical bearing upon present commercial aspects in Natal, in these terms :

“ Our public institutions have hitherto escaped misfortune, and maintained a vigorous existence. This was not altogether to be expected, seeing that the number of those institutions was much in excess of our needs. Natal has had as many banks as would have done for a community possessing fifty times her age, population, and standing. After going on for some years without a bank at all, and then being several years longer dependent upon one bank alone, the

colony suddenly became the scene of competition for six different banks, to say nothing of other companies from whom accommodation could be obtained. This is a very different state of things from that of Queensland, where no local bank exists, and whose financial affairs are managed by the branch offices of other Australian banks, or by the imperially-established 'Bank of Queensland,' now in course of being wound up.

"Banking facilities have been, in fact, far in excess of the demand for them. Nothing short of a large influx of immigrants and extension of enterprise could have found safe or profitable employment for the amount of capital and credit thrown open to competition here. Deprived of sufficient legitimate business, the banks have in many cases been made use of as the means of creating visionary capital, in the shape of accommodation bills and other rotten instruments. For a year or two this sort of business may be carried on, and may appear to bear good returns, represented by dividends large enough to quiet apprehensions; but the end of it must come, when the necessities of the moment require that the capital represented on the face of bills and notes be turned into money. Then is seen what mere promises to pay are actually worth, and then it is that the severest pressure of the crisis is felt.

"Here, in Natal, the necessities of the time have been aggravated by a grievous conjunction of adverse causes. The Basuto war, and its consequent stoppage of trade; one or two bad seasons, and losses suffered both by coast planters and upland farmers; the prevalence of monetary difficulties in England; and the want of immigration, have all concurred to complicate our embarrassments. It is true that over-speculation in land has also contributed its share of evil; but had

those who speculated been so far-seeing as to secure occupiers and cultivators, as well as purchasers of the land sold, they might not have had to deplore a depreciated value and a stagnant market. When we compare our position in Natal with the state of other countries suffering in a similar manner, we do not yet see that there is anything exceptional or remarkable in our condition, nor that our case is in any way worse than, nor indeed in many moral features so bad as, that of England herself."

One of the oldest and most experienced colonists, and a gentleman at the present time filling a high and responsible office in the service of the Colonial Government, in alluding to the same subject, within the last few weeks, writes: "The distress in the colony cannot wholly pass away until land regains enough of steady value to be a real security. The crash arose chiefly from the false system of 'cracking up.' Land-holders who had got land for nothing were not satisfied that it should not have a greater value than three or four shillings an acre. By 'cracking up' they would raise the value of their lands. Their wishes were in some degree seconded by the organisation of schemes for the construction of railways, and the attainment of other as yet unrealisable projects, under the stimulus of which projects land rose to the fictitious value of £2 and £3 an acre, even in positions remote from towns. Like others, the managers of the banks were blinded. They supposed that the note-of-hand of a man possessing ten, twenty, or thirty thousand acres of land might be relied upon, might be renewed again and again without danger. On such security, therefore, many were furnished with the means of unsound trade, or of mere dishonest extravagance. But the day of reckon-

ing came at last, and colonists have been taught a lesson." The same authority, in alluding to the absolute necessity of a careful and judicious selection of emigrants, also writes: "Some emigrants will do well—but they are a peculiar class, and, indeed, a select few from that class—those who will be content to dwell on their farms, to live almost wholly on the produce of their gardens and farms, to avoid extraneous luxury, and to economise in every possible way, will do well to a certain extent; but want of experience will frustrate the efforts of many of these, and want of self-denial or intelligence of a great many more, who will blame the Government for all their own errors and faults. For this reason I have always had it steadily in view that the Government ought to assist, without inviting, immigration. This, notwithstanding I do not shut my eyes to the fact that a region capable of containing many happy homesteads in a very fine climate is at present empty, and that it is a sad pity that it should be so."

Another colonist of equally long experience, and with a more intimate and extended knowledge of commercial prospects and affairs, writes: "The great advantage of Natal as a field for emigration is that, with small means, a man may surround himself with every comfort, live an easy, independent life in a luxurious climate, and enjoy a higher social position, with the prospect of starting his family in life with the same independence. On a farm in Natal, with £200 a year, a man may keep his horses, trap, servants, and dogs, and realise the enviable life of a country gentleman. If men in Natal would only be content to settle down on the land, and eschew the towns, there would be no complaining in our streets of hard times. I, &c.

one, have more faith in the ultimate prosperity of Natal than I have ever had."

The attention of the Legislative Council and of the Executive Government of the colony having been for some time drawn to the obvious desirability of bringing some new influence into play, that might tend to foster the introduction of useful immigrants into Natal, and to quicken the settlement and occupation of waste lands, it was determined in the early part of the last year to send a special agent to England to confer with her Majesty's Commissioners of Emigration, and to endeavour to organise some arrangement whereby a selection of suitable men and their families might be induced to leave England for Natal, and be assisted in doing so. This was forthwith done, and the result is that a new system of small land-grants and assisted passages has now been planned, and sanctioned by the Imperial Government. The leading idea in this system has been to secure as much as possible of the advantages that have been found in past times to result from the influx of immigrants, and to avoid as much as possible of the inconveniences and dangers that are attendant upon too promiscuous an introduction of settlers. Only men who know how to turn land to account by cultivation and stocking are allowed to avail themselves of the advantages offered by the Government; and these men are required to have sufficient means at their command for making a fair start.

1. In the first place, men who have a small capital of £500 have 200 acres of fair agricultural land given to them, with a continuous reserve of other 200 acres, which will be retained for them for purchase at 10s. per acre for five years. These grants are made on the condition

that the settler who avails himself of the grant shall really occupy and cultivate his land, and reside upon it continuously for eight months in each year; the final transfer of the property not being made until this condition has been fulfilled for four years.

2. In addition to this, a limited number of settlers, with or without families, have fifty acres of land, with right of surrounding commonage, given to them; also upon condition that they occupy and cultivate the land, and that they have the knowledge and skill requisite to turn it to account, and sufficient means for making their first start. These men are likewise allowed steerage passages to the colony in emigration ships, inspected and sanctioned by the Government, on paying £6 per statute adult (that is, for each individual over twelve years of age, or for each *two* children under twelve years of age) to the Emigration Commissioners in London. The lots for these settlers are selected of good average land duly supplied with water, and plots of inferior land round are left open for grazing and common use. The families are lodged in a building belonging to the Government on their arrival, and waggons are provided, but at the cost of the settlers, to carry them to their land. In some instances tents are furnished for their temporary shelter upon the land.

3. Pastoral runs of 1,000 acres of crown land, suitable for cattle, sheep, and goats, are let on eight years' lease, at a rent of one penny per annum per acre, upon the condition of actual occupation and fair stocking; but also upon the understanding that the tenure of any portion of the land so hired may be terminated by the Colonial Government by sixty days' notice, given at the end of any year, permanent improvements being allowed

for under such circumstances, and the tenant being at liberty himself to give up the rest of his run if he thinks it desirable to do so.

The Colonial Government still retains about four millions and a quarter of crown lands which are more or less available for settlement under one or other of these plans. The position of these crown lands is somewhat remote from the two principal towns. But as has been already said, a considerable portion of this is of unexceptionable quality, and also is reported by the Surveyor-General and Colonial Engineer to be quite as accessible as any land in the colony, capable of being made so by a small outlay on the part of the Government.

It has been stated elsewhere that, in addition to the open lands of the colony still held by the crown there are also waste and unoccupied districts of considerable extent, which belong to private proprietors who have purchased the land for sale on profitable terms at some future time. It is of very great importance to the renewed prosperity and progress of the colony that this land should be productively occupied. But some difficulty is for the present experienced in getting it sold in the open market at the prices which are now asked for it by its owners. It is, however, hoped that arrangements may shortly be carried out for settling select portions of it, by allowing small holders to occupy these upon conditions which arrange for their purchasing their holdings by payment of fixed yearly instalments spread over a period of ten, or even twenty years. There can be no doubt that portions of estates might be disposed of for easy terms in this way, with the ultimate effect of actually increasing the value and return of the entire property. The unsettled portions

of an estate are immediately made more saleable when connected parts are profitably occupied by industrious settlers, and converted into prosperous homesteads. It requires no very large amount of worldly wisdom and shrewdness for men to see that it is better even to give up a broad stretch of waste land, in thirds may acquire an outlet, than to retain the sterile, and unproductive

added that it is most elasticity will be allowed settling the land, as experience proved that this can be done. The actual state of the settlements upon the spot time be ascertained by the office of the Natal Government, Strand, London, or at the Emigration Board, 8,

XIII.

HOMESTEAD—INDIAN CORN FARMING.

THE first person with small means has to do in the colony or colony is to make his way to his grant, provide himself with shelter there, and bring some portion of his land into cultivation as speedily as possible. On arriving at the port of Durban, shelter is furnished to the assisted immigrant

for under such circumstances, and the tenant being at liberty himself to give up the rest of his run if he thinks it desirable to do so.

The Colonial Government still retains about four

NOTICE.

SINCE the publication of the "Emigrant's Guide to Natal," an Amendment and Extension of the Scale of Government Land Grants have been made, under the authority of His Grace the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

Men with £500 of capital, or with £50 fixed yearly income, now receive 200 acres of freehold land, with 400 acres of reserve, which may be purchased within five years at 5s. an acre.

Men with £250 of capital receive 100 acres, with 200 acres of reserve for purchase.

Men with £100 receive 50 acres, with 100 acres of reserve for purchase.

Approved men, with less means, receive 50 acres without reserves.

Coast lands, for tropical produce, are granted in half the quantity, on the same scale, without reserves.

Full transfer is given after two years of occupation.

Lessees of pastoral runs have a pre-emptive right over the entire run at 5s. an acre.

December 20, 1867.

to occupy these upon conditions which arrange for their purchasing their holdings by payment of fixed yearly instalments spread over a period of ten, or even twenty years. There can be no doubt that portions of estates might be disposed of for easy terms in this way, with the ultimate effect of actually increasing the value and return of the entire property. The unsettled portions

of an estate are immediately made more saleable when connected parts are profitably occupied by industrious settlers, and converted into prosperous homesteads. It requires no very large amount of worldly wisdom and shrewdness for men to see that it is better even to give away one-third of a broad stretch of waste land, in order that the remaining two-thirds may acquire an actual money value in the market, than to retain the whole as a desolate, unsaleable, and unproductive wilderness.

It should, perhaps, be here added that it is most probable some extension and elasticity will be allowed in the Government plan of settling the land, as experience and circumstances prove that this can be safely and advantageously done. The actual state of the arrangements to facilitate settlements upon the crown lands in Natal can at any time be ascertained by inquiry at the Immigration Office of the Natal Government, 15, Buckingham Street, Strand, London, or at the offices of the Government Emigration Board, 8, Park Street, Westminster.

CHAPTER XIII.

FIRST PROCEEDINGS ON THE HOMESTEAD—INDIAN CORN AND MIXED FARMING.

THE first thing a new settler with small means has to do in the colony of Natal is to make his way to his grant, provide himself with shelter there, and bring some portion of his land into cultivation as speedily as possible. On arriving at the port of Durban, shelter is furnished to the assisted immigrant

in a building belonging to the Government which is near to the landing-place in the inner bay. Arrangements are then made to convey him and his belongings to his land in ox-waggons hired under contract by the Government, but charged to the settler at contract price. The journey may be expected to be something like 100 miles. Arrived on the land, the settler gets a hut erected as speedily as possible. A door and window for the hut may be procured for about twenty-two or twenty-three shillings in one of the towns; and having purchased these, the hut may be put up by Kafirs at a further cost of about two pounds. The hut is made of wattle and grass, and looks something like a big beehive, but is of elongated form, and has the door at one end and the window at the other. When well built it is both warm and dry, and, with a little ingenuity and contrivance, may be made fairly comfortable. It needs to be planted on a natural slope of ground, to facilitate the draining away of water after rain, and to be protected at the upper end by a trench. These are points of domestic architecture, however, in which the Kafirs themselves are profoundly skilled. As soon as the hut is prepared, about five acres of ground should be at once broken up and roughly fenced in. It is a very good plan to construct the fence at once of a ditch and sod wall on two sides, and on the other two sides to use a more temporary structure of branches and wattle, which can be easily removed to enlarge the field. When the whole permanent wall is completed the enclosure should be of about forty acres in extent. The month of June or July is a very satisfactory time to commence these operations, because then there is a fair chance of the land being ready for the reception of seed when the first spring rains begin to fall at the

end of the month of September. This is, however, of comparatively little importance when the settler is well provided with the means of maintenance until his land is furnishing his prime wants.

The first crop which the new settler turns his attention to is necessarily INDIAN CORN. This is, indeed, the principal grain-food of the colony, and is of the highest importance to all classes of the community, on account of the extent to which it is now used by the Kafirs. It constitutes a very nutritive food, standing about midway in character between rice and wheat. Kafirs often live upon it for months at a stretch, and get scarcely any other food. Made into porridge, and eaten with a little milk and sugar or treacle, it constitutes a very palatable dish, and finds a welcome upon every settler's table. So soon as the immigrant has secured to himself a good crop of "mealies"—the familiar local designation of maize or Indian corn—he may be quite easy as to the prime question of actual sustenance. There are instances among the early colonists of men who have lived for long periods upon their maize crop and the produce of their gun.

The Indian corn is a really handsome plant, and grows to a large size in Natal, thriving in most soils with the utmost luxuriance. The Kafirs grow it in rude gardens carelessly broken up by the hoe. It is estimated that some 24,000 acres of ground are under Indian corn in Natal. It is, however, possible that this estimate is considerably under the mark. Society and social organisation are yet in so primitive a stage in the colony that returns of this character cannot be relied upon as presenting much more than bare approximations. A single grain of maize produces a large, heavy cob, packed densely round with from 700

to 1,000 grains. The cultivation of this cereal is very easy. It grows in every district, and on almost every kind of soil, but the midland regions and climate are its stronghold. The growth there is so healthily checked during the colder season, and the rains are so auspiciously supplied, that the bountiful grain puts forth its full energy, and literally yields a thousand-fold. There is a tendency on the coast to a prolongation of the period of ripening, which is detrimental to the final yield. It sometimes happens that the coast crop of maize is sparing, or even deficient, when the hill crop is in full abundance. The best situation for a maize crop is a good deep soil near a river or stream. The ground should be well ploughed twice over, and will then yield a good crop in either a wet or dry summer: if thoroughly loosened it will retain its moisture through a long continuance of dry weather. If the summer proves, on the other hand, unusually wet, the deep ploughings enable the superabundant moisture to pass away from the actual surface. The corn is planted in every fourth furrow. The second ploughing being shallow, the seed is dropped in behind the plough, each one about 12 inches from its neighbours. When the plants are 3 or 4 inches high they need to be hoed out with a horse hoe; and this operation should be repeated when they get to be 18 or 24 inches high.

The average yield of maize, under fair management, is from 24 to 36 bushels per acre; 30 bushels is not an unusual return, even after a dry summer. There is a constant and ready market for it, but its price varies in the markets of the principal towns from 8s. to 16s. the muid, or three-bushel bag of 196 lbs. weight. The meal sells at from 11s. to 20s. the bag of 180 lbs.

The praises of this staple article of colonial agriculture cannot be deemed to have been adequately recorded until the further statement has been made that it is a most valuable food for animals. Horses eat the corn eagerly, and thrive well upon it, when it is mingled with some other kinds of food. A couple of quarts a day will keep a good, well-bred cow in full yielding of milk during the late winter season of bare and dry pastures. It fattens pigs into excellent bacon; and last and not least, the Indian coolies, of whom there are now nearly 7,000 in the towns and on the plantations, are beginning to understand that maize stands far before rice in both fattening and sustaining powers, and to ask to have it substituted for the Indian grain.

The newly-arrived settler will do wisely to get in a quarter of an acre of potatoes simultaneously with his Indian corn; and he will generally find it advantageous to sow oats in March or April, after reaping the Indian corn, for a winter crop. It may not be amiss to try a small patch of barley and wheat, as a kind of experiment, with the oats. As a matter of course, fowls and pigs will be introduced into the list of the settler's growing possessions at the earliest possible moment; and wherever it is practicable, two or three cows will be acquired also, when the settler may be deemed to have fairly established himself in his adopted home. Beyond this he will be almost certain to find older and more experienced colonists near him only too eager to impart to him the lessons they have themselves learned, and to direct his attention to the pursuits that are the most likely to bring him a speedy return in his particular position and circumstances.

There is scarcely anything more certain, in the range of colonial experience, than the now almost universally admitted conclusion that mixed farming is the most advisable course of proceeding for men of small capital. The soil, climate, and circumstances of the young colony all conspire to determine this. The first thing the immigrant of narrow means has to do is to secure for himself and for his family a bare supply of the actual necessities of life. Having accomplished this, he has next to look to cattle, horses, sheep, goats, cows, butter, cheese, pigs, poultry, Indian corn, wheat, oats, potatoes, sweet potatoes, and possibly tobacco, to yield him gradually increasing returns. He has to watch his opportunity and use his common sense and judgment in drawing more or less upon these various sources according to the results that he finds to attend his exertions. It is obviously a very strong argument in favour of this multifarious proceeding, that it goes very far to carry with it its own compensation for occasional drawbacks and losses in special departments, dependent upon casualties or peculiarities of season. It is almost certain that when adventitious circumstances affect one kind of crop or of live stock unfavourably, others will be thriving either fairly or exceptionally well. The man of small means should never lose sight of this consideration until he has earned the right to increase and concentrate his risk in one kind of occupation. These remarks in reality apply quite as much to the coast district as to the uplands. The upland farmer has the advantage in the number of his resources; but, on the other hand, the small farmer on the coast has still a very large selection which he can draw upon, and he has the further advantage of a more ready and abundant

market, because he lives in a more densely settled district, and in all probability nearer to the port. A planter on the coast, who has had a large and long colonial experience, and has observed closely and thought deeply on these matters, in speaking of them, says with great practical emphasis: "Any English family that will work in this region as English farmers do at home must be prosperous. Various conditions combine to secure a certain and ample return. There is scarcely an article of agricultural produce that may not be made to yield largely at small cost. Sugar may be available grown in small quantity if the settler plants himself down near a mill. Coffee and arrow-root may be produced to a limited extent at the same time. Pigs and poultry may almost always be made remunerative, and cows may be turned to excellent account. Where men have buckled to coast-farming of this sort in Natal, in the spirit in which Canadian settlers attack the bush, they have invariably succeeded. Two or three hundred acres of land afford ample space for labour of this character. There are men who have made a competency when prices were lower, markets less abundant, and labour more difficult to procure, who nevertheless commenced with fifty acres of land and fifty pounds. Indeed, there is not a case known of an industrious, hard-working colonist who has worked in this spirit and failed, unless where the failure can be at once ascribed either to drunkenness or to unwise and over-eager speculation."

A settler, who landed in Natal with small means in the year 1861, and who had his lesson to learn when he landed, has furnished the following most graphic picture of his own early colonial experience, in a communication addressed to the Colonial Secretary on the 1st of January in the present year, 1867:—

“ In November, 1861, I landed in Durban, foolishly spent ten months ‘looking about me,’ as the phrase was, and on Sept. 9th, 1862, entered on my present farm. The farm was small, consisting altogether of 255 acres, ‘more or less.’ Twenty acres were enclosed by a ditch and bank, the latter planted with seringatrees through its entire length, and on one side, in addition, with blue-gums. These twenty acres were in a fair state of cultivation. Ten acres adjoining were half enclosed by a ditch and bank, but no trees were planted on the bank, and about one-fourth the enclosure had the turf ploughed up. Within the larger enclosure was a dwelling-house, a decent building as compared with the general construction of that kind in the district, including rooms for storing grain, sacks, and all the small appurtenances of the plough and cart, as also pantry; the house contained eight apartments. Some of the rooms were small, having been originally constructed for pig-styes. They were, however, substantial, and admitted of being made tolerably comfortable. About twenty feet from the dwelling-house, and parallel with it, were a small stable and a milking-shed. The space between these and the house was each night occupied by about a score of cows. It was the cow kraal. This yard was covered with litter and dung, generally from one to two feet thick, through which the cattle plunged during the long nights, and in wet weather soon brought the manure to the consistency of soup. When in this state it oozed through the wall into the bedrooms, where it stood in pools. The cows could scarcely be expected to lie down, and of course were constantly on the move; now rubbing their horns against the bars which protected the bedroom windows, then violently pitching each other against them, and

anon varying their employment by a conversation more loud than interesting. To obtain sleep it was not only necessary to get the ear accustomed to the strange noises, but also to have the nose and lungs inured to the smell and malaria that, during the sultry tropical nights, in spite of every precaution, filled all parts of the bedrooms. As I did not believe any possible circumstances could justify the proximity of such a nuisance, the cow kraal soon ceased to exist there. A tiny lean-to, at one end of the milking-shed, used for curing bacon, a rickety pig-sty, a moribund cattle kraal, and half an acre of peach orchard, completed the inventory which represented all I was to have when fortune had so smiled upon me as to enable me to pay £500 for them. I entered on the farm, and, after paying ten per cent. of the purchase-money, all I had was four oxen, two cows, one heifer, one-year old bull, and two calves; also a horse, which ran away a few weeks after, and which I have not seen since. Together, at the then high prices, my stock was worth about £66, which, with 22s. 9d. in cash, was my entire capital. I had, however, expectations from England, which made the venture somewhat less rash than it appeared to be.

“How gladly would I have jumped at such an offer as is now being made to emigrants by the Government of Natal. How many anxious nights, days of hard, unnecessary labour would I have been spared, and how many bright pounds would I have saved if the money I expected to receive had not been forestalled to pay for the property, but had been left free for use in stocking and working my farm.

“Shall I tell of the first year's struggles? Of the

pinchings and scrapings? How Kafir labour could not be paid for, and of the privations and delays that resulted? Of the mistakes made in farming by my ignorance of the commonest methods of manipulation? How, when I first attempted to hold the stilts, an observer would have thought *I* did the ploughing by pushing behind, and that the oxen had only to guide the plough in the furrow? Those only who have experienced it can judge how disagreeable and expensive it is for a man in middle life to serve an apprenticeship to a new business in a new country.

“Though a perfect novice in farming, before I had followed the occupation many months, I felt convinced that the methods of agriculture practised in this district of Natal were of the rudest possible kind, and that with a little more capital to purchase proper implements, and obtain a sufficiently large herd of cattle to make manure, the average yield, of maize especially, could be doubled. So also in curing and preserving bacon. Hitherto, bacon has been forced on the market in a few months at low prices, and not unfrequently large quantities have been thrown away as utterly useless. *Now*, bacon-curing in Natal is reduced to a certainty; so also is its preservation for an indefinite time. Dare I speak out what I firmly believe on this point—that before many years have passed, Natal will export to the Cape, Mauritius, India, and probably England, hundreds of tons of bacon and hams? Its climate and soil eminently fit it for success in this business.

“But now to figures, that we may see what measure of success has attended my labours. The following is an epitome of my balance-sheet on this 1st January, 1867:—

DR.				CR.			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Capital, September 9th, 1862	67	2	9	Live Stock	250	7	6
Capital received since, and accounts owing	464	0	0	Utensils	138	2	0
Balance, being profits on the four years ..	547	6	8	Bacon, &c., in stock ..	155	6	7
				Growing Crops	123	0	0
				Permanent improve-ments on Farm	411	18	4
	1,078	9	5		1,078	9	5

"It seems but fair that I should show that during these four years I had at least a fair share of misfortune to contend against, and that I had no special advantage to assist me.

"During the first year I had to battle through with but £70 of capital, which was no small hindrance.

"In 1863 and 1864, in consequence of engaging in cattle-dealing, I had lung sickness constantly amongst my small stock, and lost a large percentage; and in attending to this business I neglected my farm.

"The summer of 1864-1865 was the 'rust year.' The entire oat crop was that season destroyed by rust. This had not happened before during the time the colony had been in existence, and of course the loss I sustained, when introduced into a four-years' balance-sheet, makes a greater deficiency than if it were spread over sixteen or twenty years. That year I had forty acres under crop, fifteen of which were in oats. The summer of 1865-66 was the driest the colony has known, and in consequence the yield of maize was lower than in any preceding year, improved methods of cultivation being allowed for, and in that year I had sixty-six acres under cultivation, sixty-two of which were in maize.

"The summers of '62-63 and '63-64 were favourable, but in the former, my first year, I had but nineteen acres under the plough, and these were badly managed;

and in '63-64 only twenty-five acres. The four winters I have been here, old colonists tell me, have been above the average for mildness and moistness, so that probably I have reaped some advantage from that source.

"I have thus endeavoured to give a fair statement of my doings, having undervalued rather than overvalued everything. A greater measure of success is now, I am sure, open to any man who, with a fair capital, ordinary capacity, moderate industry, and economical habits, chooses to seek it in Natal. Life here is not all hard work. I spend on an average one to two days each week shooting buck or partridge. Pleasant neighbours are on all sides; we visit often, and enjoy social life as it can only be enjoyed when perfect freedom socially and politically exists. Four months of our winter are one unbroken sunshine, tempered by a dry bracing breeze that gives strength and spirits to a man, and makes life truly enjoyable. There are many difficulties to be encountered; much self-denial and perseverance required; but not more, if so much, as is necessary to success anywhere. Things seem very strange the first year. The emigrant has to learn altogether a new mode of life. He knows nothing of the Kafir language, yet must have Kafir labourers, and must speak to them in their language. It is almost inconceivable how much annoyance is felt, and no little loss is sustained too, while the new-comer is being initiated into the mysteries of the Zulu tongue. This fortunately is becoming each year less a difficulty. There is, in my estimation, nothing in all the catalogue of dangers, difficulties, or hardships in Natal life to be placed for a moment as a set-off against the grateful soil and genial climate of the country. Let this, however, be distinctly understood, that drinking, gambling, and idleness are not royal roads to fortune even in

Natal, though diligently followed by many who emigrate to it.

“I do not know any man in this district, nor in the colony, who has followed farming with moderate industry and perseverance, and has not been fully as successful in proportion as I have been. In fact, generally, greater success has been obtained. I wish to be clearly understood on this point, and must therefore be plain and explicit. I refer, in this assertion, to those men who have followed farming only; that is, cultivation, or cattle or sheep breeding. I do not promise that the land or cattle speculator will be successful, or that the trader or transport rider will get on, because I know nothing of these occupations: I know something of farming out here, and say, without any shadow of doubt, that every ordinary man, with a little capital, must succeed.

“The commercial distress of the last two years has lowered Natal in the estimation of many in England. To such let me say that the dark cloud which has been passing over this country has in no instance cast its shadow on the prudent, industrious farmer. He has lived far beyond the influence of its gloom, and regardless of the danger it threatened. The produce of his farm is so extensive and varied, that under any circumstances, however isolated, he would have all the necessities and not a few of the luxuries of life. Every farm in this district produces readily maize, oats, barley, buckwheat, beans, peas, pumpkins, vegetable marrows, cucumbers, cabbages, rhubarb, eschalots, turnips, beet, onions, asparagus, potatoes, and sweet potatoes, ground nuts, peaches, nectarines, apricots, mulberries, grana-dillas, figs, apples, almonds, loquats, oranges, lemons, Cape gooseberries, raspberries, tomatoes, chilies, carrots,

celery, lettuce, radishes, parsnips, and tobacco. Some, perhaps all, when tried, will produce coffee, tea, and rice. These, with beef, mutton, bacon, and game, *ad libitum*, tend much to engender a healthy independency, and secure quiet comfort."

The writer of this letter states, in a subsequent communication, that he has added to his first holding, alluded to in the preceding passages, 630 acres of land purchased unimproved for £232 13s., and that this accession makes his farm up to 885 acres.

The effect of this very striking picture is remarkably strengthened by another communication, also addressed to the Colonial Secretary, by the Presbyterian minister of the city of Maritzburg about the same time. The main purpose of the letter is to draw attention to the desirability of introducing British immigrants into Natal in preference to aliens, and the writer supports his arguments by describing what he had himself just witnessed in a small professional visitation he had had occasion to make through a district extending a few miles round the city. The reverend gentleman says:—

"I am prepared to show that, generally speaking, our British fellow-colonists have not only improved their own circumstances, but have also been most successful in developing the resources of this new country. It is most encouraging to witness the progress made by many of the earlier immigrants from Yorkshire now spread over a wide extent of country. Yes, these are the kind of men we want to colonise Natal, who from small beginnings, through honest and persevering industry, have attained to abundance, and in one case at least to wealth. Most of these grow good wheat as well as maize and other crops. Their flocks of sheep have greatly increased, being in a healthy

condition, as also their horned cattle and horses, &c. Passing westward, and crossing the river on the main line of road by Helen's Bridge towards the Karkloof range till you come to Foredown Farm (a Government grant), you have a good specimen of a stock farm. A little lower down you come to Lynedoch Farm, where a farmstead, dairy, crops, and stock can be shown that would not do discredit to a first or second class farm in Britain. In the neighbouring district of Nottingham the settlers have suffered rather severely during the past year from loss of cattle and sheep, &c.; but, though discouraged by these adverse events, with that perseverance and industry peculiar to our country, they are using every precaution, and hoping for better success next year. One who came out as a humble emigrant by Byrne's scheme is proprietor of a six-thousand acre farm, containing a fine forest of native timber. Returning to this town by Nottingham Road, without visiting the scattered settlers by the way, crossing the Umgeni Bridge, coming down the Zwart Kop Valley Road, crossing the Town river by Scott's Bridge, let us take a cursory view of the cluster of settlers beyond Fox Hill, and look over their well-cultivated fields, homesteads, and cattle. Inquire of these men, and you will find that, notwithstanding their heavy loss from lung sickness among their stock, and the want of sufficient rain last year for their crops, yet, generally speaking, they are in a better and more prosperous condition on their own lands here than they could ever have been as small farmers or farm servants in Scotland. Here they have a schoolmaster, receiving a grant in aid from Government, and occasional religious services in their school-room. If time permitted, we might pass on to review the estate of

Camperdown, and witness there, along the main line of road to Durban, good specimens of British settlers with comfortable homesteads in various stages of progress. Crossing the Umlazi river by the Richmond Road, and there passing some good farms, let us take a survey of the township originally designed for Byrne's emigrants. Any one acquainted with the state of matters there in the first stages of its existence must be struck with the great change for the better that has taken place in the whole appearance of Richmond and its neighbourhood. I could with difficulty obtain a place of any kind at first, in which to meet with a few families for worship, or to shelter myself for the night, whereas it is now the seat of a magistracy, with two places of worship, a public school, and a library in course of erection, both the last-named receiving grants in aid from the local Government. The chief eyesore here, perhaps, as in other towns of Natal, is the excessive number of places for the sale of intoxicating drinks in proportion to the number of the inhabitants. In the neighbourhood there are several industrious settlers; among others there is a Jerseyman, who has his emigrant allotment well cultivated, and, in addition to maize and other crops, he has this year planted seven acres of cotton. This man and others have been induced to try cotton from the success of three young men on a Government grant some miles to the westward of Richmond, towards the Umkomanzi river. Another of Byrne's immigrants, four miles south of Richmond, on the same side of the river Plovo, lost his all from the wreck of the ship *Minerva*, and wrought at his trade as a blacksmith some time before taking up his emigrant's allotment. This is a man from the extreme north of Scotland, and by his well-directed

energy he has acquired a comfortable house for his family, a large plot of ground under cultivation, a goodly number of milch-cows, with a considerable herd of cattle, two or three waggons employed in transport trade, and is also the proprietor of some 2,000 acres of fine land immediately adjoining his own original twenty acres' allotment. A little further down the Ilovo there is a family of immigrants of the same period from England. The father and three sons have separate homesteads, and are all well off and prospering by their industry. The oldest of the sons has removed to occupy a government grant of land on the Upper Umkomanzi, where he is said to be getting on successfully. Passing some later settlers, promising also to do well, you come to another English family, consisting of father and three sons, with separate homesteads on the same government grant of land, all having an appearance of comfort. Nearer the Ilovo there is a Scottish family, consisting of four brothers and an uncle, all settled also on the same government grant. They are prospering in crops and cattle, and three of the brothers have lately erected an excellent corn-mill, which promises to pay them well, and at the same time to prove very convenient to the other farmers in the neighbourhood.

“Travelling over an extensive tract of fine lands, occupied by Kafirs, and passing Susandale Farm to the left, you come in view of a cluster of four government grants, occupied by four families from the north of Ireland. These families have only been in occupation a few years, yet they all have an appearance of comfort about them as if they had been old settlers. In addition to these, there are two other north-of-Ireland families, who have purchased each a small lot

of government land by their earnings since they came to Natal: though labouring under disadvantages, and being later in the field than the others, they also promise to do well. There has been a school in this locality receiving a small government grant in aid, and the appearance of these people assembled in the schoolroom for divine service occasionally, to the number of thirty, young and old, would delight any one interested in the progress of Christian colonisation. In giving this brief and cursory notice of British settlers in this colony, I have studiously abstained from noticing the progress of men who have commenced with capital, although some of that class might be referred to with advantage. I have also passed over many who are less known to me, and have confined my observations generally to the families living in those parts that constitute the field labour occupied by myself and my colleague."

A colonist of the class principally alluded to in this communication wrote recently to a friend of the author:—

"I find that, without exception, the colonists in this middle district are perfectly satisfied with the results of their past years' labours. Most of them came here destitute of means, not even having an agricultural implement to assist their hand-labour. Most of these men now possess, including land, house, cattle, and horses, from £2,000 to £4,000 worth of property, and some have a great deal more. Many of these men, had they remained in England, would have been candidates for the workhouse. The children who would have been a burden to them in England are here an addition to their prosperity. When I came to the colony in the year 1859, advice was generally tendered to the settler with some sinister motive. Men

then residing in the place were not to be trusted, and twenty acres of land were thought to be a large piece to cultivate. These things are all now changed very much for the better. Men that come to the colony with a little capital can invest their money to advantage. The country will be greatly benefited by immigration. But it is to be hoped that the error made in other colonies of promiscuously introducing all kinds of people will be avoided. The men required to benefit the colony and themselves are persons who can settle upon the land with a capital of from £500 to £1,000. These settlers should at first rent land with the right reserved to them of future purchase, and so have their capital at command to invest in suitable stock. I firmly believe any man coming out to Natal with ordinary intelligence and skill in farming, and making up his mind to rough it for two or three years, will never repent the step. By perseverance and economy he may certainly place himself in an independent position in eight or ten years. I have no hesitation in saying that no other part of the world presents the same advantage to small capitalists as Natal, the Orange River Sovereignty, and the Transvaal. For myself, whatever I have turned my attention to during seventeen years has prospered."

Yet one other instance that is within the knowledge of the author is worthy of record on account of the result that has been worked out by steady perseverance and attention to the land. A settler, who took up one of the large grants already alluded to as being allowed for a short time about the year 1857, moved on to his farm in 1858 with an empty purse. He mortgaged a small property in the city to a building society for £30 to enable him to do so, and that small sum was his sole capital. He procured thirty head of cattle,

and an old waggon and eight oxen, partly on credit, and made a plough and harrow for himself. He lived with his wife and one child under the waggon-tent until he had built himself a house of stone. After he had broken up a small piece of ground his available means were exhausted, and he had to work at transporting Indian corn, and afterwards to take charge of a road party, to earn a little ready money. He then put a crop of Indian corn into the ground, but this came to nothing on account of the soil being poor and imperfectly worked. The next spring he secured a good crop of wheat, which made him a fair return. He now turned his attention mainly to breeding cattle. In the beginning of 1860 he had 180 head. Soon after this he had managed to get fifty acres of land under cultivation; and this in one year gave him 1,050 bushels of oats and 150 bushels of wheat, besides green forage and potatoes. Since this period he has added to his landed property in successive lots 3,000 acres, 5,000 acres, 1,000 acres, and 2,763 acres; making in all an estate of nearly 15,000 acres. Upon these runs his cattle are now rapidly multiplying. His first two years were a period of great difficulty, and he has since encountered serious drawbacks. He has nevertheless paid for the whole of his land, and owes nothing excepting a trifle for a few oxen just purchased. In speaking of his own career and success, he remarks that he has done nothing which may not also be accomplished by any steady, persevering, industrious man who is willing to undergo privations and hardships in the beginning. The large land grant which he availed himself of in 1858 is not now to be reckoned upon; but there are advantages in the general advance of the colony since then which more than compensate *for that difference.*

CHAPTER XIV.

CORN CROPS AND GREEN FOOD CROPS.

WHEAT is grown in most of the hill districts of the colony. But it is somewhat remarkable that, notwithstanding this, the grain is still imported to the value of several thousands of pounds in the year. One reason for this is found in the fact, which has been already named, that the summer is the wet season. The usual practice of old colonists is to grow about a hundred bags of wheat for their own use, but not to go largely into the cultivation of this grain, on account of the liability there is in some seasons for the crop to be affected with rust. There is, however, scarcely a doubt that this liability may be largely obviated by proper management. It has been remarked in recent years that early sowing has produced splendid crops, while wheat that has been sown late in the same year has been considerably injured by rust. In all probability careful drainage of the land, which has not yet been anywhere attempted to any extent, would go far to produce an important revolution in this particular. Some cultivators are now very successful in growing wheat in the winter, or dry season, by practising irrigation. The wheat is then sown in the month of May, and reaped about the end of October, before the heavy rains have fully set in. It is possible to get two crops in the year where irrigation is practised. There are very few situations in Natal in which this plan may not be pursued with the exercise of a little ingenuity. The irrigation needs to be repeated about three or four times in the dry season. A dam has to be formed in some convenient position where there is a natural run

of water, and a reservoir of sufficient extent is so made. Twenty-seven bushels per acre is no uncommon yield. Many of the varieties of soil seem to be well adapted for the growth of wheat. Some kinds will yield several good crops in succession without the use of manure. But any extended production of wheat would require to be carried on with deep cultivation and abundant manuring. There is a peculiar kind of wheat known as klein corn, which is a great favourite with the Dutch farmers. It does not yield so largely as English corn, but it is very hardy. It can, however, scarcely be thrashed in the usual way. In the practice of the Dutch boers it is still trodden out by oxen. It is so tough in the straw that the ordinary machines break the ears in pieces before they separate the grain. It makes most excellent bread. The boers'-meal bread of the Dutch colonists is deservedly held in high repute. Two other kinds of corn commonly grown in Natal, the bearded corn and the Victoria wheat, yield more largely than the klein corn, but do not furnish so excellent a bread.

The land that is intended for growing wheat in the winter season should be carefully prepared by ploughing at the beginning of January, as soon as the summer crop is ripened, and it should be ready for the seed by the end of April. A bushel and a half of seed is enough for the acre. Irrigation should be practised immediately after the sowing if the ground is very dry, but not otherwise, as it is apt to cement the ground into a hard crust, which has to be again moistened before the young plants can make their way through. There is generally enough moisture furnished by the late rains to enable the seed to germinate. Irrigation may be needed once, twice, three, or four times,

according to the character of the season. It is nearly always beneficial when the plant is ready to flower, and is rarely needed afterwards. The grain should be ripe about the end of October, and it should be formed as it is cut into small conical stacks, about nine feet in diameter and seven feet high, with a large bundle of grass tied at the end, opened out and fixed like an umbrella over the apex of the cone. This plan affords great safety against casual rain. The small stacks are opened out when the weather is favourable, and the sheaves dried for permanent harvesting.

One farmer, who has been settled in the neighbourhood of Mooi river for several years, states that with good cultivation he has cropped the same land with wheat ten years running, and had abundant crops. His ordinary yield has been from 18 to 20 bushels per acre, but with care he can get 30 bushels per acre from his land. His Victoria wheat weighs 64 lbs. per bushel. He has never been troubled with rust, and has not bought flour for thirteen years. Some of the best authorities in the colony are convinced that when a due amount of skill and proper management are brought into operation, wheat-growing will be a much more favourite occupation among Natal farmers than it now is, and that the colony will not only supply itself with this most valuable grain, but there will also be a large export to other lands.

Oats grow even more readily in Natal than wheat. They are cultivated largely in the neighbourhood of the principal towns, and there prove a very remunerative crop, on account of the large demand there is for horse-food. For this purpose the crop is principally cut green, and stored as forage. The oat does best in the hill districts, but it may be grown on the coast. Many

of the early colonists have realised considerable sums of money by the growth of forage. The crop used at one time to be grown all the year round, so as to keep up a pretty constant supply ; but of late years the summer crops have been injured with rust. It is, however, a general impression that oats sown the last week in April are safe from this visitation. The farmer named above as cultivating wheat successfully on the Mooi river, sows oats in June, July, September, the end of December, and in January, and gets 42 bushels of grain per acre. The usual yield of green forage is about 3,000 lbs. per acre, and this forage sells at from 3s. 6d. to 9s. 6d. per hundredweight, according to the season and the exigencies of the time.

Barley grows very readily in most places. It does tolerably well even on the coast. The farmer on the Mooi river already spoken of gets 60 bushels per acre. The grain, however, is not yet malted in the colony, and there is, therefore, a very limited demand for it. It is being gradually introduced as horse food in some localities.

Kafir corn, a species of millet, is principally used by the natives. They crush the grain between stones, and consume it as meal. But they employ it more largely for making a fermented beverage called "tywala," (pronounced "chwala.") The grain is soaked in water, and then fermented in the sun in large pots or jars. The beverage is obviously very nutritious and somewhat inebriating. In its more ordinary form it is very much like partially fermented gruel ; but from the chiefs' breweries it is turned out as a clear and more refined liquor. The Kafir beer is relished by many settlers, although certainly the taste is an acquired one, and some practice and experience are required before

the relish can be confessed. Kafir corn is now used to some extent as horse food.

Clover and *lucerne* grow very luxuriantly among the hills. The crop is cut in patches day by day, and grows up again with great rapidity. A very small space of ground furnishes an abundance of food for several horses during the wet season.

The European *potato* thrives in the fields and gardens of the uplands. It is very easy indeed to get two crops in the year almost anywhere. The first crop is planted in August, and then some of the eyes taken from this again in January, about three weeks after it has been removed from the ground. The yield of the crop is about the same as in England. Sixty hundredweights from an acre is not an uncommon crop. There is, of course, a ready market for the tuber. Its price varies in the markets from 1s. to 4s. 6d. per bushel. It is generally considered that few things pay better than potatoes, but that high cultivation is necessary.

The *sweet potato* is used largely as a food both by the natives and the European colonists; it is the tuber of the *convolvulus batata*. It much resembles the ordinary potato, but grows larger, and is very sweet when boiled. It is a wholesome and nutritious article of food, and is generally liked. It is more hardy than the European potato, grows readily in the coast districts, as well as in the uplands, and sells for about half the price of the common potato.

Turnips and *beet-roots* can be grown readily among the hills. Considerable attention has been recently drawn to the surprising facility with which the sugar beet-root grows among the rich thorn-valleys of the upland rivers. Mr. Shepstone, the Secretary for Native Affairs, is taking much interest in this matter, and a

short time since brought the results of an experiment, that had been made by a well-known old colonist, under the notice of the Agricultural Society of Maritzburg. This gentleman, Mr. Landsberg, planted some seed of the Silesian beet, which had been sent to him from the Cape, in his garden, at Erichstein, on the south bank of the Mooi river, in the month of October of the year 1864. The plants were set out in rows, 18 inches apart, and some of them were taken up indiscriminately after four months' growth, and found to weigh 20, 25, and 30 lbs. apiece. These plants were seen growing by the author. Three plants set apart to yield seed, which is only ripened in the third year, weighed 80 lbs. apiece in the month of October, 1866. No manure or especial care was employed. The ground was simply dug with a spade, and the plants were irrigated during the winter. The weight of the roots in the second year was 50 lbs. Mr. Shepstone calculated that the produce per acre, taken upon the basis of the smallest roots of Mr. Landsberg's experiment, would have been not less than 170 tons.

It is not so much as promising the cultivation of this crop for the manufacture of sugar that this experiment of Mr. Landsberg's acquires a high importance; for the large roots of the beet are not generally those which are most esteemed for this purpose; but it is on account of the surpassing value which the crop would possess as a winter food for cattle. It is now pretty well admitted that the ultimate success of stock farming in Natal will be found to depend more upon skilful cultivation of the ground than upon extensive pasturage; and the result of Mr. Landsberg's experiments leaves no doubt that the beet-root will yield a far heavier crop of food for stock, on the ordinary well-cultivated land of

the colony, than anything else that is known. If, however, some means can be contrived for extracting the saccharine principle rudely from the root, to be sent to England or elsewhere for refinement, so much the better, as the refuse pulp, after the extraction of the sugar, continues to be of almost equal value as food. It is eaten by both cattle and sheep with the utmost avidity. In the countries where sugar is manufactured from beet-root, the pulp is simply thrown into ponds or reservoirs of water, and cut from the bottom with the spade as it is needed for the cattle.

CHAPTER XV.

CATTLE, SHEEP, AND HORSES

CATTLE were unquestionably the first commercially valuable production of the colony. The old Dutch pioneers who came down into Natal through the passes of the Drakenberg brought their herds of oxen with them, and scattered them broad-cast over the luxuriantly-clad hills among the buffaloes and antelopes. The pastures of South Africa support everywhere a vast multitude of these wild animals, and thus prove their capabilities as grazing grounds. But the grass of Natal is more luxuriant than that of the upland plains, or of the districts farther south, on account of the constant and abundant rains of the summer season, which have been already described. This grass is in most places a rich continuous carpet, and not a succession of isolated tufts. It becomes coarse and dry after the end of the summer rains, and is then burned off the ground to make way for fresh young herbage.

The ground is either black from the burning, or brown and dry during two or three months of the latter part of winter. But even then there is a bare subsistence for the cattle in ravines and moist nooks. Even the Kafir chiefs in the uplands have numerous herds of cattle.

When the Dutch boers first came down into Natal, their oxen multiplied marvellously. Many of the leading men among them soon became wealthy from the large increase of their cattle, and from the produce of their dairies. The oxen were merely allowed to run over the wide stretch of wild pasture by night and by day, without any other supervision than the eyes of Kafir herdsmen to keep them from straying away. Some of the farmers sent down to the market from four to six thousand pounds of salt butter every year. This rude pastoral farming continued to be very prosperous until about twelve years ago. Then, in the year 1855, the epidemic lung sickness came into the colony from beyond the mountains, and gradually swept through the land. The disease was of a very virulent form in its first attack. Scarcely more than four per cent. of the cattle seemed capable of resisting the infection where it appeared. But the loss from the disease fell ultimately upon the general community rather than upon the farmer, for the price of oxen and cows rose in full proportion to the diminution of their numbers. As heavy transport is entirely carried on in South Africa by means of waggons dragged by oxen, oxen must be had whatever their price. Beasts that had previously been purchasable for £3 and £4 brought £10 in the market. After a time the lung sickness assumed a milder form, and it is now gradually disappearing, the numbers of cattle are again increasing,

and the price is diminishing. It is estimated that there are at the present time not less than 300,000 cattle upon the Natal hills. There can be no doubt that even with all drawbacks the rearing of cattle is a very profitable occupation. The farmer, spoken of as cultivating wheat successfully in the Mooi River district, states, as the result of his own personal experience, that he began breeding with eight cows thirteen years ago, and has bought fifteen others since, and although he has suffered frequently from lung sickness, he has now 280 head of first-rate cattle, and sells from thirty to forty beasts to the butcher at a clear profit of £300 every year. In 1865 he made £80 from his butter, and had £20 of bacon from pigs fed upon the skim milk. Four cows on his farm gave fifty-eight beasts, worth £330 upon his pastures and £40 from sale. One of his cows, which cost him £3, had £108 entered to her credit when she was sold. Another farmer in the same district, who had 189 head of cattle in 1860, and who has also suffered from lung sickness, had 417 head of young cattle, all in excellent condition, in 1865, and during the five years had taken £800 from the butcher. He had also made yearly £80 worth of butter from forty cows, and had had plenty of churn-milk for pigs and poultry, and a year ago he was beginning to purchase and fatten Free State oxen for the colonial winter market. Other old colonists, and experienced farmers, affirm that there is no country in the known world better adapted for the feeding of cattle than Natal. Cattle may be seen in the colony as fat as any in England, and although not possessing the same frames as English oxen to carry meat, still grass-fed slaughter-oxen may be commonly met with weighing from 800 to 1,000 pounds.

Colonial cows do not yield milk as abundantly as English cows. This, however, is partly due to the primitive method of management adopted. Cow-keeping in the colony is pretty much what it was in England centuries ago. The calf and cow are allowed to run together all day, and are then shut up apart at night, that the cow may be milked in the early morning. With this management two or three quarts of milk is considered a fair daily yield, and the small Zulu cows furnish considerably less. Cows of superior breed and of exceptional excellence have been known to give fifteen quarts of milk in the day. It is well-known that a fair supply of artificial food increases the yield of milch cows threefold, and keeps the winter quantity well up to the summer mark. The Dutch farmers, under the old regime, expected to get about one pound of butter per week from each cow during nine months of the year, and to sell it at from ninepence to one shilling.

Four different breeds of cattle have been hitherto principally known in Natal.—1. *The Africander breed*; comprising coarse-boned, long-legged animals, with enormous horns, well calculated for draft work on account of their strength and activity. 2. *The Fatherland breed*, a more fleshy and more thick-set animal with smaller horns and softer hoofs, and with better milking qualities. This kind was originally a direct importation from Holland. 3. *The Zulu-land breed*, a diminutive, active, and somewhat humped animal, seeming to be a cross between Spanish beasts imported from the Portuguese South American provinces, and some humped quadruped, and found principally among the natives. 4. *The Basuto or Macatees breed*, a long-legged animal with very poor quarters, and with horns

even bigger than the Africanders, of very low value. Many recent settlers are now giving considerable attention to the improvement of cattle.

Sheep.—The introduction of lung sickness among the cattle, in the year 1855, was attended with one very important result. It induced the Dutch farmers to make trial of sheep upon the colonial pastures. Woolled sheep of the merino breed were brought in from the Cape colony and acclimatised, and it was soon found that in many situations among the hills the new introduction did exceedingly well. The lambs cast in the colony proved hardy and strong, and the wool was found to be of excellent quality, and flocks are now consequently extending more and more over the upland pastures. It is estimated that at the present time there are close upon 200,000 woolled sheep in the colony. In the favourite pasture county of the Umvoti there were 7,700 sheep in the year 1858. The sheep of the Umvoti numbered 77,000 in the year 1865; the hundreds had become thousands in seven years.

There are four distinct advantages which sheep-farming possesses in Natal. 1. The amount of capital with which the farmer commences his operations may be anything his circumstances dictate. 2. The current expenses are comparatively insignificant, amounting to little more than the wages and keep of Kafir herdsmen. 3. The returns are quick and considerable; and, 4. There is always an unlimited market for the sale of wool, and a ready one for the sale of mutton. A practical farmer, who was thirty years among sheep on the Wiltshire downs, and who has now been several years in the Bushman's river district of the colony, gives, as the result of his colonial experience, the statement, that the losses from disease are certainly not more than in

England, while there is considerably less loss in lambing; and the expense, as compared with sheep-farming in England, is very trifling. He finds that the breed is short in some years, but he believes that to be entirely due to the ewes being allowed to get into poor condition.

It is a somewhat curious fact that wool grown in the Dutch provinces beyond the Drakenberg has generally a weak place in the middle of each fibre, where it breaks when subjected to strain. This, in all probability, is due to there being a season on these upland plains when the pasture yields insufficient food for the due maturation of the fibre. The defect is very much less, if at all, marked in the wool grown in Natal where the pastures are less affected by winter drought. Indeed, the idea is now rapidly gaining ground among farmers in the colony that its pastures are in some way eminently adapted for the formation of wool-fibre in high perfection. On the 21st of December in the last year (1866) the first public wool-show took place in the colony. Sixty-four bales were submitted in competition, and most of the samples were found to be very excellent. One of the merchants of Maritzburg, in writing of this show, says, "I was much pleased and encouraged by the results. There has been a wonderful advance in this enterprise, and great improvement in the quality of the wool. I now begin to think that the pasture or climate of Natal, or both, really favour the production of wool." In confirmation of this gentleman's impression it may be further stated that some of the samples of these wools were sent to the Paris Exhibition, and that, while preparing these pages, the writer has received information that one of the large manufacturers of the north of France has found one of these samples

so super-eminently excellent that he is desirous of entering into a treaty for the purchase of the entire yield of that quality every year. Other samples of selected Natal wool were exhibited at the great English wool show in the month of September of the present year, 1867.

The first clippings of newly-imported sheep yield upon an average about 2 lbs. of wool per head, but subsequently, clippings rise from $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. to 4 lbs. per head. It is not yet actually determined how many sheep per acre the best pastures in the colony may be expected to carry, but the belief is entertained by some good authorities that, if some provision is made to furnish artificial food in the middle of the winter, and if the same care and skill are employed that are given in England, it will be found advantageous to have three or even four sheep to the acre.

There are some points in the management of sheep in Natal that perhaps cannot yet be considered to be altogether determined. Some care, for instance, needs to be taken in the selection of the site of the land intended for sheep. It appears that some situations and lands answer better than others. There are also still differences of opinion prevalent as to the extent to which shedding during cold sea-rains should be practised. Some authorities believe that much more harm is done to the sheep by crowding them closely together than would be done by leaving them exposed on the hill-sides. Most probably the safe course lies somewhere between the extremes, and there is room in this particular for the exercise of judgment and discretion, both in affording protection from certain injurious exposures, and in doing it in such a way as that a worse evil is not engendered. Then, again, it is very doubt-

ful whether the natural grass is not too plentiful and luxuriant at certain seasons for sheep, and whether the animals do not then require some limitation of their feeding. Of the propriety of furnishing some artificial food in the late winter months there is no doubt. It may also be added that it is imperatively necessary to keep the wool free from scab and similar cutaneous affections, by periodic dressings with decoction of tobacco and sulphur. Many of the flocks suffered considerably from neglect of this precaution in early sheep-farming days.

It is most probable that it will be ultimately found that Natal is not a sheep country in the same sense as Australia, where a boundless expanse of pasture carries vast numbers of thinly-scattered sheep, and where sheep-runs extend over thousands of acres; but that small flocks, well looked after and skilfully managed, on moderate-sized farms, under high cultivation, will answer best in this colony. The farmer in Mooi River district, whose experience in wheat-growing and cattle-feeding has been given, says in regard to sheep, that there can be no doubt the great thing is not to allow the animal to decline in condition, to let them sleep where they like, very rarely to confine them in sheds or inclosures, and to dress their fleeces with decoction of tobacco leaves. It now costs him only twenty shillings a year to keep the fleeces of 960 sheep healthy and clean. He finds the earlier the ewes lamb the better, so that there is but grass for the lambs. He only employs sheds for a short time after shearing, and is then particularly careful not to employ narrow ones. His own personal experience with sheep he pronounces to be eminently encouraging. He began with 280 sheep, mixed wethers, ewes, and lambs. In his first

clip he had two bales of washed wool worth £30, and £3 worth of pickings. With his second clip he had 480 sheep and four bales of unwashed wool that sold for £45. With his third clip he had 780 sheep, and eight bales of wool, worth £76 11s. At the time of his report he had 960 sheep which had all been bought out of the two years' profit of his cattle.

In considering the prospects of sheep-farming in Natal, it should never be overlooked that the rent paid by some farmers in England and Scotland for one year would be sufficient for the purchase of a farm freehold in the colony, and the stocking of it off-hand with well-bred merinos. A good practical authority, now resident in the colony, points out that a man entering upon the occupation of 1,500 acres of good pastoral land in Natal would be able by the sale of wethers alone, and compound interest for the proceeds at $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., to pay for the farm within ten years, and would have a large flock of ewes on hand to go on with. This calculation assumes the farmer to commence with only one hundred sheep, in the first instance, and makes the very liberal allowance of 20 per cent. per annum for possible loss and casualties.

Another authority upon sheep-farming, also residing in the Mooi River district, writes: "Sheep are a paying investment in Natal, to those who give attention to their flock, but experience and judgment are needed. Keep your sheep clear of scab, and in equal condition; class them, and turn out broken mouths; never keep more than 500 in one lot, and let them lamb as early as the pasture will allow, and not later than the end of September. I have recently suffered a loss of 12 per cent. from foot-rot, incident to an unusually wet season, but I am nevertheless so con-

fidest of the success of sheep that I have just purchased another flock of 400." This flock master gives, as the general summary of his experience, that he began with 568 mixed sheep, which cost him £433, and that at the end of three years he had 1,128 sheep, had sold 400 for £335 10s., and had lost 229 by death.

The Natal natives have long possessed flocks of goats and sheep of their own. The sheep is a curious ugly animal, with a large quantity of rough, wiry, dark brown hair among the wool, and is considered by some people to be a cross between the sheep and goat, and by other people to be a crossed or modified variety of the Caprovis musimon of Asia, the Siberian goat or mouflon. This animal weighs about fifty or sixty pounds, affords excellent mutton, and has a fat tail. The Kafir goat also furnishes fair mutton, and is no contemptible addition to the European settler's homestead. If a man starts with about thirty of these goats, and leaves them to shift for themselves, without care, the increase is so rapid that in a few years he has a flock large enough to supply all the meat he needs to kill.

It has been recently found that the *Angora goat* does well on many farms with sweet pasture, that are not suitable for sheep. These goats yield excellent meat, have skins much more valuable than sheep-skins, and furnish a clip of hair that is worth two shillings and sixpence a pound in England. They are more hardy than sheep, and need scarcely any other care than to prevent them from breeding more than once in the year. One gentleman who has had some experience with them, and who had not been altogether successful with sheep in his district, commenced with forty goats, and found that in two years and a half his flock numbered one hundred and ten, although he had also

killed several in that time, for the table. He had only had two deaths from sickness during the period.

Horses have always been favourite stock with the Dutch farmers. Many of them have considerable troops. There are at the present time about 17,000 horses in Natal. The only drawback in regard to them is, that in some localities and seasons they are liable to an epidemic sickness, often fatal. They do not do well on the coast, or in low-lying districts. In some of the higher tracts they do very well indeed, and attention is being now given to improve the breed. The price of the horse in Natal varies from £8 to £35, according to quality. But much higher prices are given in India for Natal horses, and it is highly probable that before long a regular supply of remounts for India will be furnished from Natal. Two shipments have been already made. The first shipment was to Bombay, and was unfortunate in consequence of a severe storm being encountered, in which several of the horses were lost. The second shipment was very recently made to Madras, and somewhat different arrangements were carried out for the transport. The floor of the space in the hold, containing the horses, was laid several inches deep with sand, and the horses were left free of inclosure. Under this management forty horses were landed all safe, and in excellent condition, and realised about £60 a-piece.

Recent information from the colony states that a small association has been formed to collect and ship horses to India. An experienced colonist in writing of this, says: "With care and judgment there is nothing in Natal more successful than horse-breeding. I believe there are certain districts in the colony where horses can be raised as successfully, and at as little expense, as in any part of the world."

CHAPTER XVI.

COTTON, FLAX, AND SILK.

It has been long known that the cotton-plant grows very luxuriantly in Natal. The first specimens in the colony were reared more than twenty years ago by Dr. Adams, of the American Mission, from seed which he procured from America. Since his time a successive series of experiments has been made, but up to the present, for various reasons, without having fairly established the cultivation in the colony. About the year 1845, there were several small plantations in operation. One of these extended to twenty-nine acres, and was transferred to Mr. Chiappini, of Cape Town, who, in the year 1849, gathered 8,925 lbs. of clean cotton from the twenty-nine acres, and sold his crop in England for fivepence per pound. He did not, however, prosecute the enterprise on account of some obstacle to procuring a title to the land. In the year 1848, Mr. Bergtheil introduced a number of German emigrants, and settled them at New Germany, near Pinetown, upon an estate in which it was proposed that cotton-growing should be the main pursuit. During three years, twenty bales of cotton, each weighing from 250 to 300 pounds, were shipped to England, and the cotton was sold in Manchester for prices varying from sixpence to twenty pence per pound. The Germans, however, soon gave up the pursuit on account of finding other occupations which they preferred. Various attempts have been made by the Colonial Government to induce the natives to enter upon the growth of cotton, none, however, with more than a very limited success. Two or

three years ago a company commenced a plantation on the coast, some thirty miles to the north-east of the Port, and two years since 150 bales were shipped to England. But it was found in this locality that the plant was very much injured by a small fly, and the experiment has been abandoned there after some unremunerative expenditure. During the present year, 1867, the plant is being grown at a higher elevation, and farther from the sea, and, up to the present time, is giving much larger promise of success. The plant readily becomes perennial in Natal; but in the warmer regions of the coast it seems inclined to lengthen out and fritter away its power of flowering, so that it is difficult to get an abundant crop within a fair period for a gathering season. In the higher regions, the growth of the plant is somewhat checked by the period of cold, and the plant is made to flower more energetically in the ripening season, and better crops are so secured. In the district in Virginia where cotton plantations are well established, frost is commonly experienced in the coldest months. A prolonged maintenance of summer temperature is essential to the production of the hairy appendage of the seed; but a certain amount of cold, intervening for a short period between the seasons of active growth, seems to be also necessary to the formation of the flowers.

The cotton plant is a kind of mallow, bearing large yellowish-white flowers, with purple centres. It has broad five-lobed leaves, and grows into an ornamental shrub four or five feet high. The fruit ripens into a capsule with several cells, in each of which there is one seed densely packed round with the cotton fibre, that has to be picked from the capsule, when ripe, by hand. The seed is planted when the early spring rains set in,

in rows which are eight feet apart. Four seeds are put together in the ground, and the weaker plants are drawn out from the stronger one, when the seedlings have acquired a certain size. The ground has to be carefully hoed between the plants until they have become shrubs of sufficient size to be able to destroy other vegetation by their shade.

The proceedings of one farmer in the neighbourhood of Richmond with cotton are being watched just at the present time with considerable interest. He has a broad stretch of plantation in magnificent bearing, and if no untoward event occurs to throw a fresh doubt upon the cultivation several of his neighbours in the district will follow the example he is setting. There is a strong conviction abroad that both soil and climate in Natal are really suitable for the growth of cotton, notwithstanding the disappointments that have been experienced, and that final success with cotton is solely a question of management and labour.

The *Flax* plant thrives in Natal, and ripens its fibre easily. A gentleman familiar with the cultivation of the plant in the north of Ireland, has been for some time engaged in an attempt to establish its cultivation upon a large scale. He finds the great abundance of water, and its capability of being turned to account as motive power, a marked advantage, and he is confident that there are many localities in the colony where the plant can be remuneratively grown, and flax manufactured. His first idea was to induce the small landholders to grow the plant for the supply of his mill. He has erected his machinery, but up to the present time has found some difficulty in getting his neighbours to engage energetically in the cultivation under *such* arrangements as he is able to offer them.

There certainly is no reason whatever why *silk* should not be produced in Natal to any extent. In a few limited trials that have been made the Japan worm has shown every inclination to naturalise itself in Natal sunshine. It is probable that it would need to be fed under covered sheds on account of the egg being hatched on the approach of the summer rain. The white mulberry grows everywhere and with incredible luxuriance. Its cuttings strike with certainty if stuck into the ground in the rudest way at the commencement of the wet season.

CHAPTER XVII.

TOBACCO AND ARROW-ROOT.

TOBACCO is now cultivated in the colony to some considerable extent, and seems to be becoming a greater favourite among the settlers every year. It grows almost everywhere, but needs good soil, and is an exhaustive crop. There is a constant demand for it in the colony, and a considerable quantity is consumed for dressing sheep. The process of manufacture is yet necessarily somewhat rude, but good specimens of the manufactured article have been sent into the market; fair cigars are also made. Some of the growers are beginning to be ambitious of preparing a Natal Caven-dish. It makes a good return, but some of the farmers who have made trial of it say that the crop requires too much attention to make it worth while to grow it in small quantities in connection with other products. The dried leaf sells at from 9*d.* to 18*d.* the pound in

the colonial markets, and under fair management returns about £55 per acre. One grower of tobacco writes, "I have everything ready to plant 12,000, instead of 8,000 plants this year. I can always get 1s. a pound for my tobacco, and every one likes it. I make half a pound from each plant." Another grower, towards the end of last year (1866), wrote: "Tobacco is doing so well for me that I feel constantly an ever present dread that it must shortly fall off. I continue to find a sale for all I can make, that is, about 320 lbs. a week, and it pays me a good profit. Besides Cavendish, which I manufacture, I sell about 100 lbs. per week of the leaf."

The *Arrow-root Plant* has been very largely cultivated in the colony for some years. Natal arrow-root, indeed, is almost as well known in some English markets as Bermuda. It was a great favourite with early colonists, because it grows readily on coast lands that would not yield sugar and coffee. Its cultivation requires only a moderate capital, and it yields quick and good returns. The root may be grown many years in succession in the same ground. The manufacture requires care rather than skill. The crop is less affected by vicissitudes of weather than almost any other that can be produced. The buildings needed in the process of manufacture may be of the simplest description, so that they just provide free ventilation combined with protection from wet. The abundant water-power of the colony is very suitable and convenient to move the machinery. A water-wheel of four-horse power is sufficient to manufacture from four to five hundred-weight of starch per day. Fifteen Kafir labourers suffice for the management of twenty-five acres of plantation. As a set-off, on the other side, the

market for the starch is very uncertain, and apt to be easily overstocked; and the starch itself is of so delicate a character that it is very liable to be contaminated and injured, even after it has been packed on board ship. The most absolute cleanliness is required in its preparation.

The arrow-root plant, *Maranta aurundinacea*, consists of a shoot of lily-like leaves rising from a horizontal root-stock, or underground stem, which gives off fibres in growing, that in turn develop into tubers. The land that is about to be planted is well ploughed and broken up at the commencement of the rains. Old ground is better than new. The sets are taken from old stools, and planted thickly in a simple plough furrow, and are covered over by earth turned out of a parallel furrow. A sort of nursery is formed in this way. In October and November the shoots are planted out in holes made by the hoe about twelve or fourteen inches apart. The shoot is laid in the hole, set upright and pressed round with earth. Ten men working methodically in gangs can plant an acre in a day. No further care is needed, excepting to keep the land between the plants free from weeds by hand-hoeing. The crop is known to be ripe when the leaves fade; at that time the tubers and off-sets are densely filled with starch, and ready to be taken from the ground for manufacture. This is effected by digging them up, and turning them over with a fork; while pickers follow, who shake off the earth, pick off the bulbs and collect them in a basket. One fork keeps four pickers employed, and one picker can deal with from 250 to 300 lbs. of tuber in the day.

In the manufacture the tubers are grated by being pressed against a revolving cylinder of rough tin, somewhat of the nature of a nutmeg grater, and the raspings

are then subjected to successive washings; the fibrous refuse rises to the surface, and is skimmed away, while the pure starch compacts itself into a white paste, which is dried on calico trays, and broken into lumps, and then packed in boxes for market.

The soil employed for arrow-root cultivation should be fairly good, but light. Old bush, or forest land, is generally very excellent. Stony and heavy soils are unsuitable, because the tubers are apt to get bound in it, and are then unable to attain their proper expansion, and are very difficult to dig up. The yield of starch is pretty much the same whether the growing season have been wet or dry. In wet seasons the tuber is large and soft, but its greater size is made up of moisture, pulp and fibre, and not of starch.

During the manufacture four hands are needed in the drying house, and three in the grinding house. The arrow-root should be quite cold, and ready to pack, on the fifth day. As it readily contracts moisture from the atmosphere, it must not be packed in damp weather, and it must never be forgotten that the starch is apt to be tainted both in taste and colour from all objects that emit a strong odour. Thus the near neighbourhood of hides, or sugar, or of any decomposing organic substance, is particularly objectionable.

Much less capital is required for the manufacture of arrow-root, than for the manufacture of any other article of tropical produce. No more is necessary than such as will just supply the residence of the planter, the simple buildings and machinery of the factory, the implements of husbandry, and food and wages for the labourers during the planting, maturing, and manufacture of the crop. One hundred acres of suitable land should be purchased for from £100 to £200. A rude

dwelling and outbuilding may be erected for £70 or £80. Machinery and manufacturing appliances, £75. Implements of husbandry and oxen, £120. Wages and food of eight Kafir labourers for a year, £96. Cost of living for the planter and his family until the return begins to come in, from £120 to £150. Taken altogether a handy, industrious, and thrifty man may reckon upon making good his standing with arrow-root, if he start with the command of a capital of something like £600. In selecting the land and site for operations, it is obvious that the close neighbourhood of a good stream of water must be secured. Even less capital than £600 may be found sufficient if the grower settles down within a couple of miles of a mill already established, and makes an arrangement with the mill-owner to manufacture for him.

About fifteen per cent. of starch should be procured from good bulbs, and this per-centage should give one third of a ton, worth about £13 of starch per acre. About ten acres should be cultivated the first year, and by the time the crop off these acres is realised, there should be twenty more acres of ground broken up, ready for planting, and promising to yield a double income in the following year with a much lower expenditure.

An old colonist who has supplied much of the information about the management of arrow-root, adds the following simple, but very valuable aphorisms as practical suggestions for new men about to engage in the manufacture:

“Learn how to solder, and always keep the necessary materials and implements at hand.

Have duplicates of everything liable to break, in store.

Use brass tacks for wire gauze, and tin tacks for zinc.

Let everything be kept scrupulously clean ; wash the tanks every day, and all implements every week.

Have abundance of cloths for wiping.

Let the wooden implements be made of wood that does not discharge its colour.

Take care that the packing boxes are perfectly dry, and of uniform quality.

Keep the dry trays clean and free from dust.

House the drying trays whenever there are chance impurities floating in the air.

Have as little to do with a hot-wind as possible.

When the drying trays are in store cover an empty tray over the top of each tier.

Employ only colourless water in the manufacture.

Remove casual blacks from the surface of the starch by the tips of wet camel's-hair brushes.

Let your Kafir workmen have a fire in the early morning while manufacturing.

Be sure that the workmen's hands are always clean.

Let all tanks be made for the purpose, and on no account employ old packing-cases.

Look out sharp for wild pigs and porcupines."

Tobacco is grown alike in the up country and in the coast districts. There are at the present time successful planters and manufacturers both in the Weenen and Klip River countries, and in Victoria near the sea. Arrow-root culture, on the other hand, belongs exclusively to the lower region, near the coast. It is properly a coast, or sub-tropical production.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE SUGAR-CANE.

THE sugar-cane was first introduced into Natal, from the Island of Mauritius, by a gentleman named Morewood, in the year 1849. In the following year a Mr. George Marcus, an old planter from the West Indies, manufactured a small sample of sugar from some green African sugar-canes, purchased from a Kafir. These canes were crushed by a rude wooden roller hewn out of an old mast, and the juice was evaporated and concentrated in an ordinary iron cooking pot. In the year 1852, Mr. Morewood was crushing cane near the river Umhlali, in Victoria county, by machinery driven by a horse, and was boiling the juice in a brick-built, iron-roofed house, constructed for the purpose. This was the first sugar-manufactory in Natal. In the present year there are more than 10,000 acres of land in Natal under sugar-cane, and some sixty-three mills in operation. It was estimated that between 5,000 and 6,000 tons of sugar were manufactured last year.

The sugar-land of Natal does not extend over large tracts of country in one continuous stretch. Suitable and unsuitable lands are capriciously intermingled, and some considerable amount of judgment and experience is required for the distinguishing of the one from the other. Productive cane-fields are commonly broken by patches of land which prove too cold for sugar, although well adapted for some other kind of cultivation and for pasture. There is, however, no doubt that among these interrupted tracts there is sugar land equal to the best found in the old sugar-fields of the Island of

£800. A dwelling-house can hardly be erected for less than £500. For a plantation yielding fifty acres of cane per annum for the mill, there must be at least 500 acres of choice, or 750 acres of mixed land; and it will cost from £12 to £13 an acre to clear, prepare, and cultivate this. Sugar land now sells for from £2 to £5 the acre, according to its situation. The lowest estimate, therefore, of money that a man should have command of to begin the planting and manufacture of sugar, with fair prospects of ultimate success, would be £5,000. If he has this amount of capital of his own, and knows what he is after, it is probable that he will make good returns for his money and time. But if, on the other hand, he has in the first instance to borrow this capital, or any considerable portion of it, at high rates of interest, there is a far higher probability that he will find himself hopelessly involved, and his estate and crops mortgaged, before he can begin to make returns. There are men in the colony of Natal, who have commenced planting sugar with much less capital than the sum named, and who have made it answer their purpose. But such men must be looked at as honourable and enviable exceptions, rather than as the ordinary rule. Where one man is able to accomplish such a task, a hundred men would fail. Qualities of a very high order are requisite for the result: intelligence, skill, common-sense, judgment, thrift, mechanical handiness, and readiness in expedients; and, above all, dogged resolution and patient perseverance are among the indispensable qualifications for such a career.

In practical illustration of these remarks it may be advisable to give one instance of what has actually been accomplished in Natal by men of this class. The instance has recently been brought under the notice of

the writer of this treatise by a friend who is thoroughly cognizant of all the facts alluded to. The farm itself is well known to the author. Two brothers landed in Natal, in the year 1850, with nothing whatever to depend upon but their own willing hands and industrious habits. Although well-educated men, and of a thoroughly respectable class, they did not hesitate to take advantage of such opportunities as the then rude state of the young community afforded to make a beginning of returns. They traded among the wild tribes in the Zulu country and brought back cattle, and after sundry trials fixed upon a spot which they deemed suitable for stock-farming. Here, after a time, they began planting cane, and ordered the machinery for a mill capable of manufacturing about one hundred tons of sugar in the season. By steady and careful industry, and constant attention to their business, they contrived to purchase about eleven hundred acres of fine land. Upon this estate they are now residing, with 400 head of cattle and a thriving plantation. The land, the mill, and the cattle are all paid for, and the season before last, with sugar selling at the low price of £17 and £18 per ton, they realized nearly £1,600 for their crop, and put down their working expenses at less than a fourth part of the sum. At the present time they safely calculate upon clearing not less than £1,200 from the estate, which they have thus created entirely out of their own industry, within sixteen years. These young planters have sagaciously adopted a plan which gives them an advantage over most of the other planters in the colony, and which seems to be well worthy of consideration and imitation. They confine their cattle at night upon a space of about a quarter of an acre hurdled in, and shift the hurdles regularly every second day.

By this contrivance they keep the land in the immediate vicinity of the mill thoroughly manured, and thus, by manure which costs them nothing, save themselves the heavy charge of having to cart the cane from ground freshly planted at a greater distance. One of the brothers acts as sugar boiler, and superintends the operations of the mill, while the other is engaged in looking after the labourers in the cane-fields. Both speak the Kafir language fluently, and find no difficulty in working with native labourers. The return of this plantation is capable of being yet very considerably increased without adding much to the cost of outlay. It is impossible to visit this estate without becoming strongly impressed with the chief reason of the marked success of these young planters. They have been satisfied to work in accordance with their means, and to build up their fortunes securely and gradually, instead of yielding to the temptation, so prevalent in these electric days, of attempting to carry on business upon a scale that is in advance of the means and opportunities of the worker. The consequence is that they are in an independent position, compared with that of many other colonists who commenced farming and planting with apparently much larger advantages.

Another planter who commenced work in Natal, also with small means, and who is now deceased, but who has left a fine sugar plantation, clear of all encumbrance, to his children, a few years back furnished the author with the following statement of expenditure and returns, drawn from his own experience :—

First purchase—700 acres of good sugar land, at £3	£
per acre	2,100
Expenditure for ploughing, partially stumping, and planting 50 acres, at £7 per acre	350

Brought forward	£2,450
Weeding, ploughing between the canes, and trashing, at £2 per acre	100
Cost of dwelling-house	150
Superintendent's salary, one year	150
One horse	20
Partial fencing of plantation	50
Machinery capable of working off the produce of 100 acres in four months	2,400
Sugar-house, sheds, battery, and clarifiers	650
Four carts	100
Sixty oxen at £8 each	480
Expenses for managers, boilers, engine-drivers, and Kafirs, while crushing, four months, at £70 per month	280
Carriage of 200 tons of produce to market at £2 per ton	200
Loss on sugar bags, about 10s. per ton	50
Wood for raising steam, cost of cane knives, oil, grease, and other incidental expenses	80
Sum total of outlay	£7,160

The gross proceeds to be fairly anticipated :—

100 tons of sugar at £24 per ton	£2,400
Treacle	210
	£2,610

representing interest on capital employed (namely, £7,160), less about £1,210 to be deducted for working expenses and profit.

It is as well to contract for the ploughing and planting of the second crop, on account of it having to be in progress while the first crop is in process of manufacture, and no important amount of profit should therefore be expected from it. With the third crop there should be fifty acres of ratoons to manufacture, an addition yielding probably £300; but the purchase of ploughs, harrows, and other implements, and the wear and tear of machinery, possible depreciation in prices, and risk from fire and bad seasons, should be placed against this.

An experienced planter from the same neighbourhood, upon examining this estimate recently, remarked

that the sum allowed for the purchase of land was ample, although the value of land was rising, but that fifty acres of plantation would not keep up a return of 100 tons of sugar, and that the price quoted, namely, £24 per ton, must not be expected to be maintained.

There is no doubt that in very exceptional cases four tons of sugar have been realized from an acre of ground, and that at one time Natal sugar sold for £40 per ton. The fair average yield is about a ton and a half per acre ; and the price at the present time realized by the planter in Natal is £17, £18, and £19 per ton for the different qualities. The general conclusion seems to be, that if a man has sufficient capital of his own, makes a good selection of land, and works judiciously, he may get a good return for his money from sugar-planting in Natal ; but that if he has to pay £12 per cent. interest for the use of his capital, only a very able man indeed, who gives up his entire time and energy to the task, and who lays himself out to take advantage of every incident and opportunity, is likely to bring out a profitable result.

CHAPTER XIX.

COFFEE-PLANTING AND TEA-CULTURE.

COFFEE was first planted in the neighbourhood of Durban about twelve years ago. At first the planting was looked upon very much in the light of a curious and interesting experiment. This was so much the case that it is only now that the pursuit is being boldly and largely entered upon. There are, however, at the

present time, some few planters who have fine plantations in full yielding, and planting is being prosecuted with energy, and with rapidly-increasing confidence in the result. There is now very good reason for the belief that the soil, the temperature, and the rain-fall on the coast are all eminently suited to the production and maturation of the berry.

The land that is preferred for the plantation of coffee lies chiefly on the northern or landward slope of the hills, that do not extend more than sixteen or twenty miles from the sea. But some planters are gradually inclining to believe that the coffee range in Natal will ultimately be found to extend considerably beyond this. The gentleman who was serving the office of mayor of Maritzburg last year had at that time two fine plants in his garden, within three miles of the city, and some 2,000 feet above the sea, laden with berries; and he found that every berry ripened, although the winter was unusually severe. He has now several thousands of fine young plants in his nursery-ground, and is making preparation to plant three or four acres of land in this upland locality.

It is estimated that there are at least 500,000 acres of land suitable for the cultivation of coffee in Natal, if only the narrower range is calculated upon; this estimate would be very largely increased if it ultimately proves that coffee can be advantageously grown in the higher districts.

The land used for coffee on the coast is for the most part covered with bush, fern, and scrub, which have to be cleared away. These are cut out during the dry season and left exposed to the sunshine for a month or two, and then burned to ash before the rains begin to fall. The blackened stumps of the trees are purposely left in

the ground, to prevent the productive soil from being washed away from steep slopes by heavy rain-falls. The most valuable soils are either a chocolate-coloured loam, which is in high favour, or a dark rich soil full of fragments of mica and quartz, and often lying upon a base of decomposing and disintegrating granite. The ground is generally cleared in four-acre lots. After the burning of the scrub, holes are made twelve inches across and two feet deep. These are filled, until well heaped up, with a mixture of ash and loose soil. With the first rains the heap sinks down to the general level of the ground, and the holes are then ready for the reception of the plants. The plants are taken from a nursery, in which they have been reared as seedlings until one or two years old. The holes are placed six feet asunder, in rows nine feet apart, or seven feet asunder all ways. The plant is an evergreen shrub, nearly allied to the family which is represented in England by the elder, honeysuckle, and laurustinus. It has very ornamental, glossy, oval leaves in pairs, and bears white, wheel-shaped flowers on the summits of the young shoots. The berries begin to appear in the fourth year, and may be expected to be abundant in the fifth. The yield continues to increase up to the eighth year, and under good management then remains pretty steady for more than twenty years.

Coffee-planting has one marked advantage over sugar-planting. It requires very much less expensive machinery and appliances; needs very little skill for its prosecution; and the trees remain in bearing for many years without entailing any renewed process of planting. The cultivation is eminently adapted to *coolie labour*, a man and his wife readily cultivating,

gathering, and preparing the produce of four acres. On the other hand, the planter has to wait patiently four years for his first crop.

The berries present themselves on the trees in various stages of maturity at the same time, some being green, when others are bright or dark red. When ripe for picking the dark red skin encloses a soft pulp, which envelopes the bean. The berry is plucked by hand, and then has to be pulped by machinery. A cylinder, something like that of a winnowing machine, with floats of wood, is made to revolve in connection with the berries and a stream of water until the pulp is knocked away. The bean is then dried, first in sunshine, and finally by the heat of a stove; and when perfectly dried, its outer skin or parchment is removed by rolling a stone roller round upon a collection of the berries placed loosely on a circular wooden floor. The bean is then left to season for a couple of months, and after this is sorted and stored in bags for market.

The pulping-machine and roller may be worked either by hand or horse; and both are so simple that a tolerable mechanic may make them for himself, complete, at a cost of about £80. The machinery, however, is most advantageously worked by water-power, which is available almost everywhere in Natal. It may then be erected in the most perfect form at a cost of about £250. The buildings that are required are of a comparatively simple and inexpensive character. The land, however, that is employed for coffee is of about the same value as sugar land. It sells for from 30s. to £5 the acre, according to position and distance from the port, or from towns, good roads, and rivers. In some remote situations it may still be

purchased at a less price : 200 acres for actual plantation, with another hundred acres round for other use, constitute what is deemed a good coffee plantation. It then costs about £7 per acre to clear the land of bush and to prepare it for planting, and another £2 per annum per acre to keep it clean, and to prune and trim the trees. The land between the plants is best not broken up, but it needs to be kept scrupulously free from weeds by superficial hoeing: The pruning is an important operation, and requires to be intelligently and skilfully performed, in order to keep the trees in the best condition for yielding fruit. The old wood that has done its bearing should be removed, and the young shoots encouraged to come forward. This operation is now very well carried out by some of the most experienced of the Indian coolies, and more are gradually acquiring the art. To meet these several branches of outlay, the planter needs to have £300 or £400 at command, to carry on with until his trees come into bearing. It is possible to raise this sum during the first years by growing catch crops of another character between the rows of plants; or by cultivating other portions of the farm with ordinary crops. Cotton, arrowroot, Indian corn, and oats are all suitable for growth between the rows. The practice, however, is not recommended if it can possibly be avoided. It brings in immediate income, and is, therefore, convenient to men of small means; but it sets back the ultimate return of the plantation considerably. It takes up time, labour, and vigilance, which, as a mere matter of ultimate return, would pay better if all directed to the main object of forwarding and extending the plantation. The cost of constructing a residence for the planter and his family is, of

course, a matter that depends very much upon the habits and requirements of the individual. But it may be stated in general terms that a very fair residence may be built in Natal, with good management, for £500. This, however, is a topic that is spoken of in detail in another place.

From these various considerations it will be apparent that a planter who determines to devote his attention to coffee-planting in Natal should not have less than £1,000 of capital at command, over and above what may be necessary for the purchase of his land. It is of course possible, as with sugar, for exceptionally clever and determined men to make their way into the pursuit, and bring out good results, even with smaller means; but some forethought and consideration should be given to the matter, even by the best men, before the undertaking is entered upon under such a prospect. A planter, who is living some little distance to the north of Durban, who has himself been very successful in the colony, and who has command of a large stretch of suitable land, is at the present time endeavouring to assist men of small means to undertake the work; and he states that he is himself convinced that men of average character and ability, with a capital of £500, may be shown how to make themselves a success as coffee-planters in Natal. This gentleman writes at the present time, "I should not hesitate to recommend any man who has £500 clear to him on landing to enter upon coffee-planting. I could supply him with land of the right description on very easy terms, and all that I would ask as a guarantee for his success would be that he should be sober, frugal, and industrious, and that he should be entirely guided by me in the selection and mode of working his land."

Up to the present time the average yield of an acre of plantation in Natal in full bearing has been 800 lbs. of coffee. This is considered to be certainly above the Ceylon average ; and it has yet to be seen how far this average will be sustained by an extended experience. A well-managed coffee plantation in Natal returns, in good seasons, from 700 to 1,000 lbs. of the berry, worth from £26 to £37, at an outlay of from £30 to £40 the acre to the bearing point, and from £15 to £20 the acre afterwards.

One of the earliest, most experienced, and successful coffee-planters in Natal a little time since furnished the author with the following statement of the cost and return of what may be deemed a first-class and full-sized coffee plantation in the colony. It is worth while to give attention to this estimate, as the other side of the question to that which has been already given as the statement of what men of small means with the best management may accomplish. This estimate represents coffee-planting from the capitalist's point of view as an ordinary investment of money.

Purchase of 300 acres of land, 200 for actual planting, at £5 per acre	£1,500
Buildings, implements, and machinery	1,500
Labour—100 Indian coolies' passage money for five years, £1,000; wages and food for five years, at £1,200 per annum.....	7,000
Living of planter's family at £250 per annum, five years	1,250
Stock oxen and horses.....	400
	<hr/>
	£11,650

Return during twenty-five or thirty years—

100 tons of coffee per annum, at £70 per ton	£7,000
Deduct working expenses, at the outside, per annum	3,000
	<hr/>
	£4,000

Giving for interest of capital and profit £4,000 per annum. The plantation, when in full bearing, ought to be worth £100 per acre, or £20,000.

CHAPTER XX.

TROPICAL FRUITS AND UPLAND GARDENS.—FORESTS AND
TIMBER.

THE gardens of Natal are gay with flowers through the sunshine of winter, as well as in summer. Roses blossom in great luxuriance. The oleander assumes the place and the appearance, in so far as it is evergreen, of the laurel in England. The white-flowered datura (*Brugmantia*) grows to the size of a large shrub, and fills the evening air with its heavy fragrance. The blue ipomœa canopies buildings and whatever objects it clings to with a continuous drapery of its brilliant flowers. The night-blowing cereus blossoms in the open air. The passion-flower hangs in massive festoons from almost every shrub and tree. The golden willow of Australia, a flowering mimosa with bright yellow blossoms, but with light foliage somewhat resembling that of the English willow, turns every nook in which it is allowed to strike its root into a thick evergreen shrubbery; and the beds are gay for months at a time with the bright hues of the many-coloured verbenas.

In the gardens of the coast certain tropical fruits are ripened in abundance. The pine-apple is everywhere, and grows with the same facility as the turnip in England. The banana is quite as plentiful, and bears heavy crops of fruit. It is an amusing illustration of the difference of the Natal and Cape climates to see the eagerness with which the baskets of pine-apples and huge bunches of bananas are welcomed at

Cape Town on the arrival of the Natal mail steamer. The orange ripens all along the coast, and there are now some very fine and large orange groves in full bearing in various places; but the orange is by no means confined to this range. It is already established at Pinetown, at Mapumulo, between the Umvoti and Tugela rivers, on the hills above Maritzburg, in the township of Weenen, and at one old German mission-station immediately beneath the Drakenberg. The mango, custard apple, sour-sop, and some other Indian fruits are ripened in the Botanical Gardens at Durban. The lemon, lime, citron, and pomegranate grow everywhere. In the gardens of Maritzburg, and of other up-country districts, the fruits most commonly found are the fig, grape, apple, pear, loquat, quince, medlar, guava, peach, nectarine, apricot, mulberry, raspberry, strawberry, granadilla, almond, and walnut. The loquat is a very delicious small apple that grows in bunches upon an ornamental evergreen tree. It is an exotic, imported from the East, or probably from the island of Mauritius. The granadilla is the fruit of a West Indian passion-flower (the *Passiflora edulis*), and ripens in the gardens in great quantities for a lengthened period. It is a round shell, or capsule, containing the seeds imbedded in a very delicious acid but fragrant pulp. The peach most commonly seen is the St. Helena peach—a yellow fleshy fruit with a sarcocarp, or pulp, that clings to the stone. This is so abundant in the orchards surrounding old homesteads that pigs are frequently fattened with the fruit at the ripening season, and in places the ground is almost evenly spread with the stones of the fruit that has fallen ungathered. The grape is not so readily ripened as in the Cape, on account of the wetness of the

summer season, but it is occasionally encountered in great perfection. The strawberry attains its full flavour, but it is difficult to get the plants to bear fruit in any quantity.

There are two, and perhaps only two, wild native fruits that are deserving of a passing notice. These are the amatungulu, or native plum, and the Kei apple. The amatungulu is the berry of a coast evergreen shrub armed with large spines, and allied to the little blue-flowered periwinkles, or vincas, of England. The fruit is about the size of a damson, and becomes bright red, and is full of a pleasant, acid, milk-white juice when ripe. The Kei apple is the fruit of an ebony tree indigenous in the district of the river Kei. It is very acid, and forms a tolerable substitute, when preserved, for red-currant jelly. The Dutch use it as a pickle, without vinegar, before it is ripe. The plant is clothed with spines, and forms an impenetrable thick-set fence of great value. The Cape gooseberry, which is naturalized throughout South Africa, is the capsule of a straggling plant of the deadly nightshade or potato family. It has a rank, acid flavour, which is certainly far from approaching to that of the English gooseberry, but it is nevertheless held in considerable esteem.

The gardens of Maritzburg and the uplands yield pretty well all the vegetables of temperate Europe. Among those which are most usually grown may be enumerated peas, beans, eschalot, cucumber, pumpkin, vegetable-marrow, and yam, potato, turnip, carrot, parsnip, spinach, lettuce, cabbage, cauliflower, celery, radish, cress, artichoke, onion, and tomato.

The hills towards the sea are many of them covered by a thicket of evergreen trees, mostly of moderate

size, the thicket being known technically as the bush. Many of these evergreens bear bright flowers, and climbing plants of various kinds weave themselves in amidst the stems and foliage. Some few tracts in the uplands are thinly covered by small thorn-trees, or mimosas; but the forests in the upland country are, for the most part, restricted to the sides and gorges of the higher hills. Among the timber-bearing trees indigenous to the colony there are many that are of considerable value. Perhaps foremost among the whole, on account of the extensive use that is made of it for building and the construction of furniture, is **YELLOW WOOD**. This is produced by the *Podocarpus elongatus*, a species of yew. The wood is white, something like deal, and takes a better-looking surface; but it is softer, less grained, and more homogeneous. It is short fibred, of inferior tenacity, shrinks very much in drying, and is useless in exposed situations. It answers very well for the rafters and floors of houses, and for common furniture. It is bought in the colonial market for £8 the 800 superficial feet.

Among the harder and more valuable woods may be especially enumerated stink-wood, sneeze-wood, black iron-wood, red milk-wood, and the Umzimbite and Tombootie woods of the Kafirs. **STINK-WOOD** is the produce of a species of laurel, the *Oreodaphne bullata*. It is a beautiful dense wood, of dark colour, and almost as handsome as walnut. It is allied to the well-known green-heart of Demerara and the til of the Canaries, and is very tough and durable. It is employed in carving and for the construction of ornamental furniture, and also for the manufacture of the rims of wheels and other parts of waggons that have to bear *great strain*. **SNEEZE-WOOD** is so called from the irri-

tating powers of its sawdust. It is the produce of the *Pteroxylon utile*, a kind of horse-chestnut. It is harder than stink-wood, but has shorter fibres, and is less tough, although possessed of considerable strength and tenacity. It is a light-coloured wood, and works very much like satin-wood. It is much esteemed for ornamental furniture, and would make excellent veneer; but its most valuable quality is that it is disliked by insects, and is very durable in exposed situations and moist ground. It blazes like a torch when green, splits readily, and will remain undecayed in the ground for fifty or sixty years. It is in common use for bridges, mill-work, and posts of all kinds. Planks of stink-wood and sneeze-wood cost £17 10s. the 600 superficial feet. BLACK IRON-WOOD is a dark wood, and is even denser, harder, and tougher than stink-wood. It is the produce of the *Olea laurifolia*, a plant of the olive tribe, and may appropriately be termed the South African ebony. It is a very durable wood, most excellent for turners' work, and is extensively used for the poles of waggons, the axles of wheels, and for cogged wheel-work. The RED MILK-WOOD of the coast is also nearly allied to the ebonies. It is the produce of the *Mimusops obovata*, a plant of the Sapota family, and is very remarkable for its great value as ship-timber. It is harder and closer than oak, equal to teak in durability, and possesses the great advantage over teak that it does not corrode round iron bolts and fastenings. It weighs 70 lbs. the cubic foot. The UMZIMBITE-WOOD, which is employed by the natives to fabricate walking-sticks, is also very durable, tough, and valuable. It is the produce of the *Milletia Caffra*, a leguminous plant. It is commonly used for the axles of wheels. The TOMBOOTIE-WOOD, the produce of a plant of the spurge

family, is dark and very hard, and useful for making the axles of wheels and for gun-stocks.

Other native woods used for the construction of furniture are known as ESSEN-WOOD (*Ekebergia Capensis*), allied to the neem-tree of India and the seringa of the Cape (of the *Melia* family); RED SPEKE-WOOD, South African mahogany, used also for posts and out-door work; ROOI BESSJE, or Red Berry-wood; and the KNOB THORN (*Xanthoxylon Capense*).

The principal native woods used in waggon-work, in addition to those already named, are WHITE IRON-WOOD (*Vepris lanceolata*); THICK BARK IRON-WOOD; SAFFRON-WOOD, the produce of an *Elæodendron* of the spindletree family; WILD CHESTNUT (*Calodendron Capense*), of the rue family; WHITE PEAR (*Apodytes dimidiata*), of the olax family; CAMDEBO STINK-WOOD, (*Rhamnus celtifolia*); ONDERBOSCH-WOOD (*Trichocladus crinatus*), of the witch-hazel family; ROODEHOUT, or Red-wood (*Ochna arborea*); RED PEAR, and FLAT CROWN (*Zygia fastigiata*).

The WHITE MANGROVE (*Avicennia tomentosa*), a Brazilian tree, and the RED MANGROVE (*Rhizophora mucronata*), are largely employed for piles that have to be driven in salt water, and are of considerable value.

Most of the common English trees can be reared in Natal. Oaks and weeping-willows are now frequently encountered; and the Spanish chestnut, walnut, wych elm, ash, cypress, cedar, and pine may be seen in some gardens. The trees, however, which have been most planted are the seringa of the Cape, and the golden willow and blue gum of Australia. The seringa grows easily and quickly, and makes excellent firewood, and *perhaps* therefore deserves to be planted near home-

steads more than it is, as the white thorn and red thorn, the natural sources of supply of firewood, are being cleared away in many places. The blue gum is a great favourite among the settlers. It grows with incredible rapidity—not less than twelve feet in the first year; and in twelve years a blue gum-tree is worth £5 when felled as timber. There are trees in Maritzburg which were planted in a flower-pot in the year 1841, which now measure ten feet and eleven feet and a half round near the ground, and which are more than 120 feet high. The blue gum is an evergreen tree of the Myrtle family, with long narrow leaves set edgeways, and saturated with a fragrant essential oil, which enables them to burn while still green. It grows generally with a clean bare trunk, tufted with branches above, which bend gracefully in a strong wind like feather-tops. The wood constitutes valuable timber for building and fencing, and burns well. There can be no doubt that every settler would do wisely to plant timber-trees to some considerable extent. An acre of ground planted with blue gums thirty feet apart is worth £250 sterling at the end of twelve years. The spaces between timber-trees planted in this way may be filled with *seringa* and black-wattle, to be cut every two or three years as fire-wood.

In connection with this subject, it is well worth considering whether it might not also be advisable to plant some of the more valuable kinds of native trees, such as the stink-wood, sneeze-wood, black iron-wood, and red milk-wood, before they become altogether scarce in the colony under the process of continued felling and consumption.

CHAPTER XXI.

WILD ANIMALS AND GAME.

SOME of the animals which are objects of the chase are still to be found in considerable numbers in Natal. The antelopes rank first and foremost among these. The stag-antelopes, with heavy bodies and large horns, are not now to be met in the colony; but four species of the yet more bulky bovine or ox-antelopes are still to be encountered. The HARTEBEESTE (*Acephalas caama*) is common on the Umvoti flats, and on other open plains and similar districts, during the winter season. It is a magnificent animal, weighing sometimes as much as 350 lbs. It lives entirely in the open pastures, and has to be cut off, when hunted, with a fair hard run. Both the males and females carry horns. The ELAND (*Oreas canna*) may occasionally be met with in the uplands in the cool months of July and August. It is a much larger animal than the hartebeeste, and a heavy feeder, and exceptional among the antelopes in its tendency to fatten—the full-grown bull will occasionally weigh a thousand pounds, and fall with a massive crash when shot. It lives in the open pasture, and is easily run down. The hartebeeste and eland are the only antelopes that are commonly shot with ball. The BLESS BUCK (*Damalis albifrons*), so named from being emblazoned with a white mark running along its body, is only found at the base of the Drakenberg during the three coldest months of the year. The BUSH BUCK, or Bush Ram (*Tragelaphus sylvatica*), lurks in the thick covers of the colony, and shows fight when brought to bay, barking at its antagonist like a dog. It is a dark

brown, spotted animal, with a thick mane running down its back.

Of the true antelopes—slim, graceful animals, carrying small horns—there are six kinds belonging to the colony. The RED OUREBI (*Scopophorus ourebi*) is spread all over the colony. It lives on the open plains through the summer, squats on the ground, and starts up from under the horse's feet, but seeks shelter in the winter. It keeps very much to one locality, and runs in circles. It weighs about 30 pounds. The GREY DUIKER, or Diver (*Cephalopus Grimmia*), a dark grey animal, somewhat smaller than the ourebi, is also abundant. It lives entirely in the cover, but runs from it into open ground when hunted. The RED BUCK (*Eleotragus reduncus*), a large fawn-coloured animal, weighing from 80 to 100 pounds, lurks in swampy covers and in high-banked water-courses. It squats till the hunter is near, is a slow runner, and is reckoned easy game. The RED BUSH BUCK, or Pallah (*Antelope melampus*), is a bright reddish bay-coloured antelope, which frequents the dense bush-covered ground of the coast. The RHÉ BUCK (*Pelea capreola*), the chamois of South Africa, is found on the Natal hills. It is a light grey animal with a wavy coat, and is very wary, and only to be killed by surprise. It posts sentinels upon elevated ground, and has to be chased by one hunter into the toils of a second lying in wait. The SMALL BLUE BUCK (*Cephalopus pygmæa*) is a very beautiful little animal, with a body scarcely larger than that of the hare, which is found in most of the thick covers of the colony. The whole of these animals furnish excellent venison.

There are several other kinds of antelope which are hunted on the high plains beyond the mountain frontier, but which do not descend into the colony. The best

known of these are the spiral-horned koodoo, the gemsbock, the water-bock, or lechee, the sable antelope, and the steinbock. The wildebeeste, or gnu, the quagga, or wild ass, and the zebra make occasional brief visits, with the bless-buck, to the Natal side of the mountains, and not uncommonly have the lion in attendance when they do so.

It is but a short time since the buffalo could be shot within an easy day's ride of Maritzburg. He still has some reserved haunts within the colony, where he may be yet found. He is a very awkward customer, for the huntsman not well acquainted with his personal habits, to deal with. He lurks in the cover of the dense thorn-bushes, with his head low, so that he can see without being seen, and bolts out with a sudden rush straight over an approaching antagonist. The hunter advances warily in all suspicious places, from tree to tree, and dodges the animal when it makes its rush, firing at it as it passes. The elephant, within thirty years, was common in the bush about Durban, and in the thorns on the high road from the port to Maritzburg. It is now only to be met with in the wild and secluded valley of the Tugela, on the north-eastern frontier of the colony. The hippopotamus still abounds in certain localities, and is prone to tread upon the hem of the traveller's tent as it passes in the early dawn from one bathing-place and haunt to a neighbouring one. The alligator frequents the mouths of the northern rivers when they are in flood, but is never troublesome unless in such places and at such times. The lion is now never seen, unless when, upon some rare occasion in mid-winter, he makes a flying incursion to the south after small game, driven down by the dearth of pasture on the higher ground. The panther and leopard still have

haunts in some of the wilder and more inaccessible ravines, whence they occasionally make raids, and generally to their cost, into settled and occupied districts. Two or three species of tiger-cat, one about the size of a greyhound, and resembling the chetah of India, and a very beautiful species of wild cat, are found in the colony. The hyena and jackal are common, and there is a large wild dog, powerful and swift enough to run down some of the antelopes. There are two species of wild pig—the prairie-pig, frequenting open ground, and the bush-pig. The prairie-pig is properly a warthog, or *phacochærus*. It is an active, ugly animal, with an enormous head, and shelters itself in the burrow of the jackal when pressed. It has the awkward habit of throwing itself backwards from the burrow when it issues from its retreat. It weighs about 80 lbs., and yields excellent pork. The bush-pig resembles the European wild boar, and sometimes weighs 180 lbs. The porcupine and ant-bear both abound, but manage to keep themselves well out of the way of observation. The meer-cat and several varieties of weasel look after the plentiful families of mice and rats. The otter works on the banks of the streams, and the mole forms his runs and throws up his hillocks everywhere. A troublesome little animal which frequents the plantations, and is known there under the name of the cane-rat, is properly an *aulacodus*, a kind of porcupine. A species of hare, very nearly resembling the English hare, is occasionally shot. The place of the rabbit is taken by the rock-rabbit, a species of cony which is very plentiful. Troops of baboons may be constantly seen among the upland hills, and there are some pretty little monkeys in the coast-bush, which are often seen by the traveller leaping across some bush-skirted road just in front of him.

There are several kinds of birds which are shot by the sportsman. An ugly brown pheasant, a large red-winged partridge, and a small grey partridge are principally confined to the coast. The teal, widgeon, wild duck, Muscovy duck, and wild goose, all present themselves in suitable situations. The koran is a bird considered by some people somewhat to resemble the woodcock. The guinea-fowl abounds in some parts of the bush. A common species of snipe, a golden snipe, and the quail, are shot in the open land. But one of the birds most affected by the sportsman is a large creature known as the paauw. It is sometimes called the wild turkey, but it is really a small bustard. The meat of the breast is short-fibred and brown, while that of the limbs is white. The bird is shot by horsemen riding in circles round it. Storks, cranes, and pelicans are in great force, and some of them are very beautiful birds. One, known as the Kafir crane, is a common favourite. Another, the secretary-bird, wages an unceasing war with the snakes.

The birds of prey are numerous, and some of them very fine. There is one large black eagle. There are several species of falcons, kites, hawks, and owls. Some of the hawks are very small, and only prey upon insects. There are two species of vultures, which are very useful birds. One, a large, heavy, black-and-white bird, with fringed flapping wings and very powerful flight, is the common scavenger of the land, and never fails to make his immediate appearance when his presence is required for the removal of carrion. The most common crow is a raven-like bird, with a warted and hooked beak, and a large white crescent upon its back. This is seen pretty well everywhere.

The birds of the bush are many of them very inter-

esting and beautiful. There are parrots, toucans, lories, kingfishers, woodpeckers, sugar-birds, honey-birds, and finches in great variety. The male of one of the finches, which is very common, carries at certain seasons of the year a waving tail at least three times the length of its body. Another of the finches is an elegant little creature with a bright crimson beak. Perhaps one of the most beautiful among the bush-birds is that which is known as the emerald cuckoo. It is a dark bird, about the size of the cuckoo, but is covered with a brightly-glancing sheen from plumage of green metallic lustre.

There are numerous snakes in Natal, some of large size, and many of them venomous; but they are far from being formidable. They are nearly all sluggish and timid, and do the best they can to keep themselves out of man's way. The chief danger is of treading upon them unintentionally, when of course they will turn and bite. Nearly all of them are at once disabled by a sharp blow with a pliant stick or whip. The python, or boa, occurs on the coast, but is a very harmless fellow excepting to the smaller antelopes, and other diminutive animals. Perhaps the only snakes that are really to be much dreaded are two species, known to the natives as the imamba, and very much disliked by them. The writer inclines to think they are allied to the cobra, or hooded snake, but he is not sure of this, as after a nine years' search he has failed to make a personal acquaintance with any individual otherwise than by its empty skin. They are slender snakes with large heads, and are chiefly formidable on account of being very active, and prone at certain times to become aggressive to man of their own accord. The writer, however, knows of one instance in which a

venerable friend, a member of the Board of American Missions, fought and vanquished one of these fellows in his own domain with an umbrella. Kafirs are occasionally bitten by snakes on account of their habit of walking about in the long grass with naked legs and feet. The writer has seen animals bitten by large snakes, but during nearly nine years' experience in the colony has not personally come across a single case of fatal accident to man from snake-bite. The venomous snakes are soon exterminated when districts become occupied and settled.

The reptiles of the colony are not all unwelcome and repulsive. Some of the lizards are very interesting and graceful. The chameleon is a common domestic pet, and invariably acquires a good character in civilised society. He is a favourite even among the natives, and for some superstitious reason never injured by them. The tree-frog is a very pretty little creature, with suckers upon his toes, by means of which he holds on to his leafy haunts.

Some of the rivers in Natal are without fish; but there are good fish in many of the streams. The native Kafirs are not fishermen; but the imported Indian coolies are quick and clever at discovering the finny contents of the rivers. The inner bay teems with an exhaustless supply of rock-cod and other excellent kinds of fish, which is now steadily drawn upon for the tables of the colonists.

Insects, of course, teem in the Natal sunshine. The strong-limbed, fan-winged division are especially in force. Crimson-winged locusts and grasshoppers, grotesque stick-insects and spectre-insects, and goggle-eyed mantids abound in the gardens. The butterflies and moths are very varied and beautiful. The gardens

and hill-sides are spangled with fire-flies in the summer season. Mason-bees tunnel the walls, and brown and gold wasps hang their paper nests from the verandahs of the houses ; and the ground is literally alive during the warmer period of the year with the busy marchings and counter-marchings of ants, black, brown, and red. White ants in some localities are troublesome with their hidden labours. Mosquitoes are common on the coast, and in some other moist situations, but in many places are never seen. Ticks, and especially a minute variety that produces considerable irritation of the skin, although it can scarcely be discovered by the eye, are abundant, chiefly on the coast, and are tiresome to people who venture in the long grass. A curious *lepisma*, known under the familiar designation of the "fish moth," on account of its fishy look, and most probably an importation from India, infests the house, and inflicts considerable damage upon muslin and chintz articles of furniture and clothing, if not looked closely after. The small brown emmet holds the pantry of the housekeeper in a constant state of siege, and is only to be circumvented by keeping all articles of food in safes, or on shelves, isolated by props, or feet, inserted into little buckets of water or tar. This, however, pretty well exhausts the list of what can be properly classed as "insect plagues"—and it is by no means a grave one, considering the energetic activity of insect life in the tropical and sub-tropical regions of the earth.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE VOYAGE AND THE PORT.

THE voyage to Natal may be made either by the mail steamers, which leave Plymouth on the 9th of each month, or by sailing vessels, which are frequently despatched with freight and passengers from London, principally by the Messrs. Ronaldson Brothers, of 147, Leadenhall Street; by Messrs. Pothonier and Tilsley, 150, Leadenhall Street; and by Messrs. Bullard and King, 30, Great Tower Street. The Union mail steamers are very fine vessels, and perform the voyage to Table Bay, at the Cape of Good Hope, in about thirty-two days; and a smaller steam-vessel then continues the voyage on to Algoa Bay and Natal in about five other days. Two or three days generally occur between the arrival of the Cape mail at the Cape, and the despatch of the Natal mail. The cost of the passage by the mail steamers is £52 10s. and £37 10s. by first and second class respectively. The voyage by sailing ship varies between fifty-six and ninety days. By the best vessels it averages about sixty-five days. The charge for the passage by sailing ship is thirty-five guineas in the cabin, with an unlimited scale of diet; and sixteen guineas in the steerage, with the dietary scale sanctioned by the Government Emigration Commissioners. Occasionally arrangements are made to take a few intermediate passengers at a charge of twenty-five guineas. Assisted passages are given by the Colonial Government to selected and approved settlers on payment to the Emigration Commissioners of either £10 or £5 per statute adult towards the cost

of passage, and of £1 for the sea-kit; two children under twelve years reckoning as one adult. In the mail steamers the charge includes the supply of bedding and cabin furniture. In the sailing vessels the passengers have to furnish their own cabins.

The steerage passengers and Government immigrants are accommodated upon a floor laid in the upper part of the hold, lit and ventilated from the main hatch. Bunks and cabins are temporarily fitted upon this floor, according to the classification and accommodation that are required in each case; but all the arrangements are inspected and approved by the officers of the Government Emigration Commissioners before the vessel is allowed to clear out of port. Many of the vessels that are now engaged in the Natal trade furnish good accommodation for passengers, and make speedy runs. The *Umgeni*, belonging to the Messrs. Rennie, of Aberdeen, has just made the return voyage in fifty-two days. Most of these vessels range between 250 and 500 tons register.

The dietary scale fixed by the Emigration Commissioners, and therefore provided by these ships for Government emigrants, comprises for each week:—8 ounces of beef on 3 days; 8 ounces of pork on 2 days; 8 ounces of preserved meat on 2 days. Biscuit, 6 ounces; flour, 8 ounces every day. Suet, 6 ounces; butter, 6 ounces; oatmeal, 16 ounces; rice, 8 ounces; preserved vegetables, 11 ounces; raisins, 8 ounces; tea, 1 ounce; coffee, 2 ounces; sugar, 12 ounces; and molasses, 8 ounces, for the week. A sufficient quantity of mixed pickle, lime-juice, mustard, salt, and pepper, and three quarts of water per day. Children under twelve years of age receive half rations, and infants between one year and four have preserved meat daily, and preserved

milk and eggs on alternate days. Infants between four and twelve months receive a quarter of a pint of milk daily, 3 ounces of preserved soup, and 1 egg on alternate days ; and 12 ounces of biscuit, 4 ounces of oatmeal, 8 ounces of flour, 4 ounces of rice, and 10 ounces of sugar weekly. When in any port, and for two days subsequently, the Government passengers have $\frac{2}{3}$ of a pound of fresh meat, $1\frac{1}{2}$ pound of soft bread, and 1 pound of potatoes and other vegetables, in addition to the usual allowance of tea, coffee, sugar, and butter. Each Government emigrant pays £1 to the Commissioners for his sea-kit, and for this payment receives a bed and bolster of cotton or flock, one blanket and counterpane, teapot, sugar basin, knife and fork, tablespoon, teaspoon, tin plate, quart drinking mug, and two canvas clothes bags.

The second-class passengers receive a somewhat more liberal diet, comprising in each week 2 pounds of preserved meat, 1 pound of soup, $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of salmon, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ pound of salt meat ; but they have to provide themselves with table requisites. The cabin passengers are in no way limited in their diet, and have their table supplied with linen, plate, and other requisites.

First-class cabin passengers are allowed to take with them 40 cubic feet of luggage. The allowance for second-class passengers is 30 cubic feet, and for Government passengers 20 cubic feet. The charge for quantities beyond this is about £2 5s. per ton ; but arrangements for reception have to be made when the passage is engaged. The passage is secured in any vessel by making a deposit of one-half the charge ; and this amount is forfeited in case of non-embarkation on the sailing of the ship.

A considerable portion of the voyage to Natal lies

through what is a fine-weather region for the greater part of the year. Indeed, the chief risk of bad weather lies near the shores of England, where gales are most apt to be encountered, especially in the winter season. Under ordinary circumstances the vessel gets out of this stormy region in a few days' sailing, and enters the delicious climate of the latitudes of Spain and Northern Africa. The steamer shapes a pretty direct course, which carries it past the islands of Ascension and St. Helena, and which makes the voyage to Natal a distance of about 6,900 miles. The sailing vessel is constrained to take a longer route. Its course first lies from the mouth of the English Channel across the Bay of Biscay, and then along pretty parallel to the coast of Spain and the continent of Africa, some 300 or 400 miles out to sea. During this part of the voyage fresh variable winds are looked for, but which possess in the main a predominant movement from the west, and therefore enable a tolerably direct course to be made. When near to the Cape de Verde Islands, the vessel enters the steady and regular current of the north-east trade wind, which always blows in the same direction in this region. The vessel here runs with full sail directly before the wind, still following the general curve of the African coast, past Sierra Leone and Liberia, until after some days' sailing this trade wind is lost. A period of calms and brief squalls is now encountered, the vessel floundering on as it can catch an opportunity, until it approaches the line. When near to the spot where the African coast trends away to the east to form the Gulf of Guinea, the region of the south-eastern trade wind is entered, and the vessel now slopes its sails, and bends over to the breeze, and runs across it at right angles well over to the South

American continent, aiming at crossing the line somewhere near to the twentieth meridian of west longitude, and keeping down south as much as the wind will allow. It is here a great point in the navigation to avoid being caught by the American coast to the north of Cape St. Roque. Some part of the American coast is sometimes sighted at this portion of the voyage. On losing the trade wind towards the twentieth degree of south latitude, the region of variable winds, with a predominant current from the west, is again entered upon, and the vessel crosses the Atlantic, running generally before a strong breeze, with the big ocean waves outstripping it in its course. The track is shaped well south, so as to clear the southern promontory of Africa, and give it a pretty wide berth, and the head of the vessel is then directed to the north-east, so as to make land somewhere near to Natal. A strong wind from the south-east is often experienced at this part of the voyage, which, however, does not occasion much delay after the Cape has been passed by some 300 or 400 miles. The steamer, on the voyage from Table Bay to Natal, keeps close along the coast, and touches at Mossel Bay, Algoa Bay, and East London.

The position of Durban, the seaport of Natal, is marked by a fine bold headland, which is called the Bluff of Natal. This sea-bluff is nearly 300 feet high, and an iron lighthouse has just been erected upon it. The light in this lighthouse was displayed for the first time on the first night of the present year (1867). Immediately behind the bluff-range, and entirely protected by it from the south-east, lies a beautiful broad stretch of smooth, land-locked water, which constitutes the inner bay, or harbour, of Natal. It is a basin *of about ten miles in circumference, with tree-covered*

slopes, coming in many parts quite down to the water's edge, and with small islands dotted about in it. Two inconsiderable streams of fresh water run into the basin from the landward side, and the great bulk of the water is derived from the sea with the flow of the tide, which here rises and falls six feet. A considerable portion of the basin is shallow, and left dry at low tide; but deep channels cut through these shoals, and in their lower parts form the anchoring-ground of the harbour. This beautiful harbour is really included between two parallel ranges of hills, lying about four miles apart: the one of these is the sea-range, which terminates in the bluff; the inner range is the Berea hills, ending in the same direction, close to the mouth of the river Umgeni, which opens into the ocean upon the coast four or five miles to the north of the bluff. From the mouth of the Umgeni, there runs directly for the bluff a low barrier of blown sand, which, however, stops short in a sand-point before it reaches the bluff, to leave the open channel by which the water flows into, and out from, the harbour. The town of Durban stands a little distance within this barrier upon the northern edge of the harbour, and upon a flat, sandy plain, very slightly raised above high-water mark. The landing-stage and custom-house lie just within the sand-point, and are now connected with the town by a short stretch of railway, which also branches off to a stone-quarry on the banks of the river Umgeni. The sandy flat upon which Durban stands, and the sea-barrier edging it from the river Umgeni southwards, have obviously been formed by the entanglement of the sea-sand drifted along by the ocean current in the natural gap or recess lying between the bluff and the Berea hills. The gap has, however, been only incompletely filled in

by the sand, and the sea-water still flows out and in with the fall and rise of the tide, and so makes the land-locked harbour. There is, as it were, a constant conflict waged between the silting-up and scouring-out operations. The breakers of the sea pile up sand, and the to-and-fro wash of the water scoops out a clear channel through the barrier. Sometimes the one and sometimes the other power gains a slight ascendancy, and the channel is accordingly a little more or a little less wide and deep. There is, however, a constant accumulation of more or less of the sand beneath the water at the mouth of the inlet in the form of a sand-bar. The depth of the water in the main channel over this bar averages about nine feet and a half, but it varies at different times between eight feet and seventeen feet; that is, it sometimes shoals, under the heaping-up power of the waves, to eight feet, and sometimes deepens, under the temporarily increased scour of the tide, to seventeen feet. Vessels of from three to five hundred tons burden have, in consequence of this bar, sometimes to remain at the exposed outer anchorage for some days, until increased rise in the tide, or some other favourable circumstance, deepens the channel, or until they have had cargo taken out to lessen their draught. It has accordingly been felt that it is of the utmost consequence to the future prosperity of the colony of Natal that some means should be found, if possible, to remove this sand-bar, and permanently deepen the inlet, so that vessels of large burden may always find ready access to the shelter of the inner bay. Some six years since a loan of £165,000 was raised by the Colonial Government to be devoted to this object of harbour-improvement, and large sea-works were commenced. The plan which was adopted was one that

was suggested by Captain Vetch. It proposed to extend piers out, at either side of the inlet of the harbour, beyond the site of the bar, and into deep water; and so to form a new deep artificial mouth to the harbour beyond the natural bar-encumbered shallow one, which could easily be permanently deepened when once it was enclosed in shallow water, and protected from the influences which heap up the sand-bar. The adoption of this plan presumes that no new sand-bar will be formed at the outer entrance of the work, provided it is in water exceeding in depth that at which the loose sand is moved by the breaking of the waves and the drifting of the currents, and provided it is narrow enough to secure a powerful scour from the rise and fall of the tide. The piers suggested by Captain Vetch consisted of frames of timber floated into their position, and then sunk and laden with stones. No difficulty was experienced in carrying out the pier to the north of the mouth of the harbour, where there is a sandy and gently-inclined bottom. But the southern pier had to be pushed out from the bluff, over an exposed rocky bottom, and here great interruption and considerable difficulty were met with; and before these were overcome, the works had to be temporarily suspended, in consequence of the failure of the contractor. The works have, however, been recently resumed by the colonial engineer, with some modification of plan. A railway has been constructed from the northern pier to a convenient stone quarry on the banks of the Umgeni river, and the pier is being extended into the sea with piles, instead of by floated frames, and these piles are then cased by loose rubble shot over them. In consequence of some marked improvement which has been already experienced since this pier was commenced,

it is anticipated that when it has once been carried well out into deep water, and beyond a false channel that now lies in this direction and diverts some of the scouring water, it may possibly be found that the entrance to the harbour is sufficiently deepened and opened for all practical purposes; and if this anticipation is not realized, it will then be time enough to consider what further proceeding may be the best for the completion of the work.

A tolerably deep indentation of the coast is made by the projection of the bluff into the sea, and the set of the Berea hills out in the same direction, further north. This constitutes what is now known as the outer bay of Natal. There is good anchoring-ground here, and vessels that come up to the port drop their anchors in this bay some one or two miles from the land. The violent winds nearly always blow parallel with the coast, and vessels are thus able to run out to sea on the occurrence of rough weather. When ships have been driven on shore, it has generally happened in consequence of getting fouled in some way in weighing anchor, and being drifted so far in before sail can be got on that the projecting bluff to the south cannot be cleared.

On the arrival of the vessel at the anchoring-ground of the outer bay, the sails are furled, and the anchor is let go. A small steam-tug with the port captain on board, and pilot boats, then come out to communicate with her, and either arrangements are made for towing her into the harbour, or the passengers are taken in the pilot boats. It is only on occasions when there is a heavy sea running that this communication has to be temporarily postponed. The impression first made on *crossing the rollers* of the bar, and gliding from the

incessant tossing of the open sea to the beautiful smooth, lake-looking sheet of water engirt in all directions with verdant hills, and with the houses of the town nestling upon its shore, is one of the most agreeable that can be conceived. There can be no doubt that the scenery of the inner bay or harbour of Durban—especially when viewed by the seaward approach—is one of remarkable, and even surprising, beauty.

There is a customs' duty levied at the port on most imported articles, amounting to six per cent. of the value; but the duty on cotton and woollen blankets, which are much in request among the natives, is fifteen per cent. of the value. Agricultural implements, books, grain, bricks, tiles, and roofing slates, coals, lime, manufacturing machinery, printing implements, and rice and salt, are free of duty. A duty of ten shillings per barrel is levied upon all guns, and of six shillings per barrel upon all pistols, brought into the colony. Such guns have to be registered and stamped in the office of a resident magistrate, and the permit of the resident magistrate at Durban is required for clearing guns at the custom-house. Gunpowder, loaded cartridges, and percussion caps are not allowed to be landed by private individuals. They have to be purchased in the colony of authorised persons, under the magistrate's permit. But 1,000 rounds of cartridge are allowed to be imported in any year for stamped and registered breech-loading guns. In the case of settlers taking cartridges with them to the colony for their own use, the practice is to forfeit the cartridges at the custom-house, but subsequently to waive the forfeiture.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE SETTLER'S LIFE AND POSITION.

WHEN the newly-arrived settler is landed upon the landing-stage near the custom-house, he has to make his way for about a couple of miles along a sandy road cut through a thicket of evergreen trees to the town of Durban. At certain periods of the day he is conveyed by a railway train, which makes the passage in a few minutes. In the town he finds ready accommodation at hotels or fair boarding-houses. The charge at the latter amounts to about five shillings per day. At hotels the cost of living is, of course, considerably more. The Government immigrant of small means is temporarily lodged in a wooden barrack erected in the midst of the bush, not far from the landing-stage. The town of Durban is now abundantly supplied with stores of all kinds, at which the necessaries and conveniences of life may be purchased—if imported articles, at a little more than English prices.

The distance from Durban to Maritzburg is fifty-four miles. The road lies at first through very beautiful scenery among the coast hills, undulating continually, but rising gradually into higher ground. At a distance of sixteen miles the straggling village of Pinetown, standing in a flat sandy valley, is passed; and, with the ascent of a bold hill immediately beyond, the region of bananas and pine-apples is left, and a more temperate upland one entered upon. The road then passes between deep valleys among some bold scenery, crosses a broad tableland, and looks down upon the city of Maritzburg, *lying in a shallow valley, at the foot of a range of hills*

which rise 1,700 or 1,800 feet behind it. This road is for the most part very fair, being tracked out by waggons in the more level places, and cut and scarped in the steeper ones. It is kept in repair by the colonial engineer, and is traversed by a four-horse omnibus, with five relays of horses, in about ten hours. As, however, this is the only public conveyance, it is more frequently traversed by ox-waggon, or on horseback, than by this convenience. There are houses of public entertainment at suitable distances the whole way along the road. The cost of travelling on horseback in the colony averages about twelve shillings per day, assuming that the traveller is riding his own horse, and does not pay hire for it. The charge for an ox-waggon capable of carrying 3,000 lbs. from the port to Maritzburg, the distance of fifty-four miles, during the season of abundant grass, is about £3. The journey is performed by draught oxen, with loaded waggons, in three days. Travellers using waggons for transport generally carry their provisions with them, and sleep in the waggon at night. In travelling on horseback, it is a common practice to send such necessities as cannot be carried on the horse by a native runner or porter. A Kafir messenger will readily convey a light portmanteau in this way from Durban to Maritzburg within twenty-four hours.

As a general rule the roads of the colony are in a very fair condition for travelling. They are for the most part tracks made in the sward along convenient routes by the traffic of laden waggons; but on all the chief roads cuttings are made on hill-sides and in difficult places, and boggy spots are drained and hardened by the colonial engineer. As for the present, the roads have to be made at the smallest possible cost,

and hard metal is only used in occasional places, they are apt to be injured by heavy rain-falls, and washed into holes here and there during the wet season ; but such damage is then quickly repaired by the colonial engineer. During the greater part of the year the rivers are easily fordable, either on horseback or by ox-waggons. In the winter season even the large river Tugela is readily crossed in this way near its mouth. During the summer season transport is apt to be stopped for a few days, by floods, at the larger rivers. But there are boats at most of these for the use of travellers, who then take their saddles and bridles over with them, and swim their horses across the streams. The large rivers on the main line of roads are now many of them permanently bridged. No stream has to be forded now between Durban and Maritzburg ; and in continuing this line of road still farther upwards, there are bridges over the Umgeni, Mooi, and Bushman rivers, and there is a large punt on the Tugela. All the rivers between Maritzburg and Greytown are bridged. There is also a very fine iron bridge over the Umgeni, near Durban, on the line of road which connects this port with the prosperous county of Victoria. The principal places where bridges are now required are on the Lower Umvoti, the Lower and Middle Umkomanzi, and the Klip River.

The first thing a settler has to do, whether he avails himself of a grant of Government land or purchases property, is almost sure to be to provide himself with shelter. Very few indeed of the holdings that can be acquired in a land so young as Natal can be expected to have buildings of any kind upon them. The first *step* should be the construction of a rude hut for *temporary* occupation, to be used only until time has been

taken to decide the best position for a more commodious dwelling. A second hut should be then erected on this site, with a light door and a small four-paned window, brought from the town for the purpose. This hut should be about thirty feet long, and twelve feet wide, and may be divided off internally into three apartments. The whole of the work of this construction, excepting the fixing of the door and window, will be excellently done by the natives. The entire cost of the dwelling will not, therefore, exceed £5. As soon as the hut is completed, the next step is to get a few acres of land under cultivation. It is often possible for a new settler so to manage as to induce some neighbour to undertake to plough up a few acres for him, at a charge of about £1 per acre. If this cannot be done, a plough and oxen must be purchased, and a Kafir ploughman set to work. The Kafirs make very fair ploughmen; but it is well that the settler should be able and accustomed to hold his own plough.

When the time has arrived and opportunity serves to erect a somewhat more commodious dwelling, this may be done either of wattle and daub or of brick, the roof being of thatch in either case. A plan commonly adopted in the colony is to erect the main building upon a space thirty-five feet long by fourteen wide; to divide this into three rooms—a central one fifteen feet long, and one at each end ten feet long; and to surround these by a verandah six feet and a half wide, which may be partially enclosed, so as to constitute six other small rooms, measuring ten feet by six. It is quite possible, by drawing the materials from the natural resources of the neighbourhood, by doing much of the work with his own hands, and by employing Kafirs, for a settler to build a very comfortable house

of this character at an outlay not exceeding £30, and so to accomplish the task as that he may find the house as good at the end of eight years as when first put up. Many colonists in prosperous circumstances are living in Natal in houses of this kind. When clay, wood, and water are all close at hand, it is perhaps more advisable to advance at once from the hut to the luxury of brick walls. The bricks may then be made by Kafirs. Ten Kafirs can make 25,000 bricks in a month; and this quantity is enough for a good-sized house. Three weeks will serve to dry them, and another week to burn them in a kiln. If a man can frame his own roof, it is possible even to build a brick house for an outlay of £50. The missionaries of the American Board work in this way, and erect excellent commodious dwelling-houses upon their stations commonly for an outlay of from £120 to £150. In building a house for more permanent habitation, it is of very great importance to have the walls at least ten feet high, in order that there may be a good slope to the roof and plenty of breadth in the verandah. The windows should be all framed so as to be fitted by one-sized pane of glass, such as a pane ten inches by twelve. The thatched roof is unexceptionable in every other particular excepting its being very combustible. With a thatched roof to dwelling and offices, it is essential to keep a broad space around well cleared of grass throughout the dry season, when the old grass is burned away.

When the settler has not sufficient confidence in his own ability and contrivance to erect his house in this way, it of course becomes a more costly affair; but it is still possible even then to build an excellent brick house *at an outlay* of something like £500. The course of proceeding is, for the settler to provide himself temporarily

with a hut upon the spot where he purposes to erect his house ; and then to advertise, first for a man to come and make bricks, then for a tender for the supply of yellow-wood and timber, then for a joiner to undertake to frame doors and windows, then for a bricklayer to build the walls and for a carpenter to come and put up the roof, and then for a thatcher to cover it in. In this way the house may be seen to grow under the immediate eye and superintendence of the settler, and the outlay be kept within comparatively narrow limits. Under management of this kind, £500 should supply a house with three main rooms, measuring eighteen feet by twenty, and with four verandah rooms measuring six feet by sixteen each. Houses in the colony are almost always built only a single story high.

It has been already said that in determining what crops he shall first put into the ground, and what produce he shall first aim at, the settler must be mainly dependent upon the advice of older colonists and neighbours, who have already had the opportunity of reaping some experience. It will be well, however, that he never lose sight of one point, which is, indeed, the one prime necessity of the colonial settler's life, and the one great secret of colonial success and prosperity—the fact, namely, that he must aim at doing everything that needs to be done with his own hands, and at producing everything that he requires from the resources of his own homestead ; or, in other words, which perhaps put the position still more pointedly and accurately, he must limit his wants to the resources he can bring into play, and he must want nothing but what his own land yields. He must be content to live upon his own Indian corn, and the produce of his own poultry-yard and dairy, or of his gun, until corn and mutton and

beef, or something that he can exchange for these, have been also raised. It is in civilised life in old lands only that division of labour and similar economical advantages and refinements are possible. This, however, constitutes the one great charm of the settler's life—the independence and freedom that are necessarily found in the primitive, self-contained, and patriarchal mode of existence, where men dress and do exactly as they please, have no rent and taxes to pay, and no calls of exacting luxury to meet. It must, however, be added, that it is by no means every one who is able, or indeed fitted, to appreciate this privilege and charm; and, what is of very great practical importance, it is by no means easy to tell, before the experiment, who is, and who is not, adapted for the life. In the ordinary routine of civilised existence, the division of labour, indeed, goes far to unsuit men for the task, and to make them dependent upon their neighbours instead of upon themselves; and whether individuals can, or can not, free themselves from these artificial trammels, and find enjoyment in the success and in the freedom, is largely a matter of temperament and of mental and physical constitution. Some men, if left to their own resources in the wilderness, will starve, where other men readily find plenty and ever-increasing abundance. In his own mind, every one conceives that he belongs to the latter class; and when he is tried and found wanting in this one essential fitness for colonization—ready adaptability and fertility of resource—he attributes his failure to adverse circumstances presumed to be operating around him, instead of to his own incapacity. It would be well if some practical test could be applied to men before they commit themselves to the *experiment of colonisation*. As, however, this cannot be

done, and men will venture upon the experiment, it is only right that this truth should be set forth in the strongest light possible, and be kept constantly under notice. When once the right men are found, it must be added that the exigencies of a colonial life prove a most excellent discipline. It is common to encounter men in the colonial dependencies of Great Britain filling stations with honour and credit, and sometimes even with distinction, who would certainly never have risen in England above a very tame and common-place existence. It is also a most important truth that for men of this character the field in the colonies is practically without limit. There is no competition, and no exclusion. The more of such men that enter upon the field, the better it is for all. Even large families, which are an anxiety and heavy burden in old lands, in the colonies are but additions to prosperity and aids to success.

There is no doubt that one of the most valuable qualifications a man can find for colonial life is a practical knowledge of farming operations. Such experience never comes amiss, and can always be advantageously applied. But it must by no means be presumed that it is only practical and experienced farmers who find success and prosperity in colonies. Some of the most successful planters and farmers in Natal are men who were originally captains of vessels, doctors of medicine, civil engineers, and tradesmen and mechanics.

It will be obvious that the remarks that have been here made, in relation to the necessities of the colonial settler's life, apply with increased force where the settlers' wives and daughters are concerned. It is of the utmost consequence that the females of a settler's family

should be capable, adaptable, and self-reliant. They must be able to do with their own hands things which are most probably done for them by hired domestics in England, and they must be able to find not only satisfaction, but pleasure, in such employment and service.

Knowledge and skill in these matters make all the difference in the settler's dwelling between comfort and wretchedness. Women who have been only used to lives of cultivation and refinement should thoroughly comprehend this before they try colonial fates. If they do not, they are apt to estimate the circumstances of their position as hardships, and even to exaggerate the privations and discomforts they are called upon to face. It is, however, matter of familiar observation with women, as with men, that persons of cultivation and refinement are not uncommonly found to take most kindly to the life in which there is large demand upon them for varied service and good management.

Young as the colony of Natal is, there are already several churches and chapels established in different localities. Ministers of various Christian sects are also settled in many places for missionary work among the natives. There are schools aided by Government grants in all the most important settlements; in nearly the whole of these schools elementary instruction, at least, is well given; and there are good central schools of a higher order in the two principal towns. There are well-qualified and skilful medical men in Maritzburg, Durban, Verulam, Greytown, and Ladysmith; and many of the settlers scattered about in the colonies as agriculturists are trained practitioners of medicine.

A district surgeon is attached by the Government to each magistracy, but the appointments are not yet all *filled up*. There are mail deliveries throughout the

colony—daily in the most populous and frequented routes, and once or twice a week in the less densely-peopled and less important districts ; the mail-bags being carried by Kafir runners, who perform the service with remarkable celerity and punctuality. There are four banks in operation in the colony—one local and three imperial. The local institution is the Natal Bank, which is the oldest in the colony. It was established in the year 1854 ; its London agents are the London and Westminster Bank, Lothbury. The imperial banks, which have branches in Natal, are the Standard Bank of British South Africa, 90, Cannon Street, London ; the London and South African Bank, 10, King William Street, London ; and the London and Natal Bank, Moorgate Street. Letters of credit may be obtained from all these banks, generally free of charge.

Money can almost always be invested in the colony at good rates of interest. The banks have been in the habit of paying £7 and £8 per cent. for fixed deposits, and mortgages yield even a higher rate of interest than this. Since the recent commercial crisis, however, the banks have found it to be advisable to diminish their rates. Very good security can be selected for mortgages ; but at the present time this mode of investing money has the disadvantage that the security cannot always be immediately realised and turned into cash. There can be no doubt that the most legitimate and the best use for capital in colonies situated like Natal is its employment in developing the natural resources of the soil, and in increasing production from the land.

The military force in the colony numbers about 530 men, comprising half a regiment of Infantry, 48 men of the Royal Artillery, 16 men of the Royal Engineers, and 50 men of the Cape Mounted Rifles, maintained by the

imperial Government. In addition to this, there are eight corps of Mounted Volunteers, comprising 404 men, and five corps of Foot Volunteers, comprising 249 men.

CHAPTER XXIV.

NATIVE POPULATION AT THE PRESENT TIME.

PERHAPS the one characteristic that marks Natal out from all the other British colonies, even more than its fine and diversified climate and fertile soil, is the remarkable abundance and cheapness of native labour. It has already a native population ten times more numerous than the white population, from which labour may be, and to a very considerable extent *is*, drawn. It is true that many settlers do not procure as much labour as they wish for; but it is also true that other settlers have as much labour, at all times, as they can turn to account, and get this at a cost very much below what they would have to pay for it in England. One of the oldest and most successful planters makes the distinct and unreserved statement that for ten years he has never wanted a man; that at the present time he has 200 Kafirs at work on his plantation; that he could extend the number very considerably if he had occasion to do so; and that he is entirely satisfied with his men. It must therefore be admitted that there is cheap and good labour in the colony, and that cheap and good labour is to be procured.

But, on the other hand, it is also found that it is not every proprietor of land in the colony who *does* procure all the labour that he requires, or wishes for. The reason for this is that some little exertion of tact and *management*, and some experience and knowledge of

the Kafir character, are necessary to insure the result. No direct pressure is allowed to be put upon the Kafirs to cause them to take up the life of toil. The matter is altogether an open question of inducement and inclination. The white man offers wages for the service that he requires; and the Kafirs come from some neighbouring native settlement and decides for himself whether he will, or will not, accept the inducement offered. If he has engaged himself for a month's service, the employer can compel the completion of this contract by an appeal to the magistrate's court, but that is the limit of his power in this direction. If therefore the neighbouring Kafirs take a fancy to the master, or have confidence in the treatment they are likely to receive, they come readily to seek and accept service. But if they conceive a dislike to him, or have any ground of real dissatisfaction with him, no amount of pay will over-ride the disinclination, which then runs contagiously from man to man through the whole district. The shunned employer does not always, or necessarily, deserve the reputation he has acquired. The Kafir is shrewd; but he is also capricious, and sometimes conceives a dislike upon grounds that it is altogether difficult to fathom or comprehend. He is necessarily, in his untutored and undisciplined state, very much more a creature of impulse than the better educated white man. This is a very disagreeable fact to the employer, who is avoided for some subtle reason that he possibly may not be able even to guess at. But it is nevertheless a natural one. And disagreeable and undesirable as it may be, it does not really touch the further truth, that for white employers who have the requisite tact, management, or temperament, there are abundance and choice of labourers.

There can scarcely be a doubt that under fairly judicious management this partial evil will be lessened year by year. The white employers are getting more and more into the habit of managing native servants, and the natives are coming more and more under the influence of artificial and acquired wants, and show a disposition to work for longer terms, and in greater numbers, and to be less fastidious and capricious in taking engagements.

The Natal Kafirs are altogether a remarkable and interesting race of men. They have generally slim, active frames, capable of bearing considerable exertion of a certain class, although naturally disinclined to sustained labour. Many of the negro peculiarities are strongly marked in them. The woolly hair, the broad noses, and the thick lips are there; and also much of the docility, the light-heartedness, the indolence, and the grotesque humour of the pure negro. But some high qualities which are commonly deficient in the negro are superadded to these. There are also, on the whole, a finer physical development, a higher cerebral organisation, and greater natural shrewdness and sagacity; and a capability of being raised to a higher civilisation. These Kafirs certainly have some other human type and some other blood mingled with the negro. It is most probable that they are a fusion of the negro stock with a race that has originally come down from the highlands of Abyssinia, and passed through the district occupied by the equatorial tribes, mingling with them, and sending forth their common descendants towards the south. Mr. Palgrave believes that the Kahtanic Arabs of south-eastern Arabia have been derived from this same *Abyssinian* source, and he names a readiness to mingle

with the African negro as one of the peculiarities which distinguish those plastic people.

It is a matter of common and familiar remark that there is an inherent quality in the negro race which in some strange way limits their powers of progress, unless they are, as it were, forcibly lifted and persistently sustained from without. This is unquestionably illustrated among the Natal Kafirs in one remarkable particular. It is really very surprising that these numerous people, with a capacity in themselves to be raised and improved, should nevertheless have done so little for their own advancement. In their wild state the Kafirs are almost without clothes, domestic appliances, or implements. Their dwellings are the old hemispherical huts of straw, entered in a crawling posture through low-arched orifices. Their agriculture is of the rudest kind, and performed exclusively by the women, and they are entirely without written records or characters. In the retirement of their own locations the same state of affairs still prevails, even after the natives have been for some years in the close contiguity, and under the influence of the example, of their civilised fellow-subjects in the colony. The principal, if not the sole evidence of advance in their independent state, is the almost universal superiority in character of the old men. The young men are nearly always wild, impulsive, and restless. The old men, just as commonly, are orderly, sedate, and sagacious. On the other hand, the Natal Kafirs exhibit very considerable and remarkably-sustained capacity when actually brought under the influences of civilised men. It has been observed by some of the best informed authorities that the pure negroes scarcely ever make any notable advance in intelligence after the twelfth or thirteenth year of their age, although

tractable and docile up to that period. This certainly is not the case with the Kafirs. They are taught very easily while children ; but they are also apt scholars, especially in the processes of the industrial arts, even in mature years. There are now to be found fairly-skilled carpenters, brickmakers and bricklayers, thatchers and ploughmen, among them. They make very handy assistants to blacksmiths. Some are even capable of tending and working steam machinery. There is one native within twenty miles of the port who has purchased a steam sugar-mill at a cost of £600, and is now manufacturing sugar from cane planted and grown by his black neighbours, without the slightest aid from white hands or intelligence. There are also settlements where as many as fifty and sixty families are residing together in square European houses of native construction, and possessing oxen, waggons, and in many instances property worth some hundreds of pounds. All these results would simply have been impossible if the dogma of arrest of intellectual growth at twelve years had been true in regard to these Natal Kafirs.

It has been said that the Natal Kafirs are light-hearted and grotesque. This is curiously instanced in a certain indifference to observation and ridicule which the young men almost constantly display. European settlers are, at first, very much astonished to encounter them in the thoroughfares of settlements and towns, decked out in the most fantastic garb, often composed of the cast-off rags of white men's clothes, and dancing and singing along without paying the slightest attention to the notice they attract, or indeed seeming to be even conscious of it. In this particular, and also in general *impulsiveness*, the young men are exactly like over-

grown children. The Kafirs, nevertheless, possess very keen powers of perception. They construct their names out of remarkable personal peculiarities, which they catch at an eye-glance, and the old men know a very great deal indeed of what is going on around them. As a barbarous people they are singularly honest. Petty thefts are of very rare occurrence, and in the earliest days of intercourse with white settlers were absolutely unknown. Some authorities attribute this peculiarity to the influence of a severe rule which was established by the chiefs during the supremacy of the Zulu despotism. It is, however, much more probable that the quality is of older date, for there is fair reason for the belief that it was possessed in an equally eminent degree by the aboriginal tribes who were dispersed by the invasion of Chaka. They are not as honest in word as they are in deed. They quite understand the art of using words to conceal meaning, and are casuists by nature. But it must be remembered that this is the case with most savage tribes. Equivocation and concealment are in reality a portion of wild man's defensive armour. Close questioning always awakens the suspicion that the questioner must have some selfish or sinister object. It seems so improbable that he should ever give himself such trouble without having good reasons of his own for doing so. The Kafirs are naturally obedient to authority. Their entire training in dependence upon the will of supreme despotic chiefs conduces to this result. They resent injustice, but bend readily even to punishment when conscious of having deserved or earned the penalty. In their wild state their dress is of the scantiest, amounting to little more than a couple of fragments of skins; but they are nevertheless very fond of ornament, and contrive

all sorts of adornments for their persons, and spend considerable intervals in dressing the hair, and training it into elaborate forms. The young women are decked out with girdles and necklaces of variegated bead work, and both men and women delight in armlets and anklets of brass. The men really entertain strong affection for their women and children, although it does not take effect in shielding the former from hard manual labour, as all burdens are carried by the women, and all cultivation of the ground effected by them, while their lords bask in the sunshine and look on. The women are deemed so valuable in this particular, that they are scarcely ever allowed to enter upon any form of service in European households. It is hardly possible to get a native female domestic for any inducement that can be offered.

It will be obvious that this practice of having all hard work performed by the women, connected with the further facts of the geniality of climate and the very restricted range of actual wants, must naturally foster habits of indolence in the men. This is, perhaps, the one great drawback in their relations to the white segment of the colonial community. They require the eye of the employer to be constantly upon them, and that their efforts shall be stimulated and sustained by patient and good-humoured encouragement, rather than by severe rule and pressure; and when they do take engagements in service it is always for limited periods, which are at all times liable to be terminated very unceremoniously, however inconvenient this may be to the employer. It is this difficulty mainly which has led to the costly importation of Indian coolies for the *sugar and coffee* plantations of the coast. The coolies *thus introduced* into the colony are assigned to the

planters for fixed terms of either three or five years' service. There is every reason to anticipate that this is an evil that will gradually rectify itself. In the meantime, it remains as an unquestionable advantage and recommendation to be scored for the colony of Natal, that even now a considerable amount of cheap, although somewhat rude and uncertain, service and labour is to be had. It is on this account that the colony of Natal is not a good field for white labourers seeking employment from others. The best of the class very soon set up as masters, and avail themselves of native service; but the rest, who have not the force and ability to accomplish this, have to compete with men who work for much lower wages than they could be satisfied to receive.

The Kafirs are eminently sociable among themselves. They live in close intercommunication and intimacy, and are quite clannish in their instincts. Even when in the service of white masters, they collect together in the evening, and spend their time in conversation and singing; and after a certain term of service seem always to be affected by an irrepressible longing to "go off to the kraals," or villages, among the hills. The young Kafir almost always speaks of all the other members of the kraal to which he belongs as being "brothers" or "sisters."

Almost the entire domestic service of the colony is performed by Kafir men. They wash the floors and the linen, make the beds, cook, wait at table, and act as porters and messengers. Their dress, when in service, consists simply of a cotton shirt and trousers, and excepting in the principal towns, where this full measure of costume is now required of them, they commonly dispense with the latter articles as superfluous. They

sleep in the kitchens upon mats spread on the floor, or in little outhouses provided for them. Many of those who offer for service do so as entire tyros, and have everything to learn, and it is then necessary that the master or mistress should be able to put them in the way of all they have to do. This is very tedious, as they rarely remain more than six or twelve months in one engagement, and thus the task of teaching has to be ever renewed. At first the rude domestics are liable to make some very extraordinary misappropriation of utensils intended for domestic service, and perform some surprising feats ; but after six months' practice and training they become fair servants. Kafirs may now be seen in Natal waiting at table very adroitly and briskly, especially in some of the houses of public entertainment at the port. In some households old servants have become tolerably skilful in the mysteries of cooking. The writer knows one Kafir who was very much valued by his mistress for his excellent bread-making.

In field-labour the Natal Kafirs soon become very useful. They are easily taught to make fences, either of stone or with ditch and sod-wall. Many of them now plough very well with oxen. In some places they may be hired to take their own oxen and ploughs out to break up the ground. They are capital brickmakers, and the young lads take readily to bricklaying and mason's work when well trained. There are good thatchers among them. They are herdsmen by their natural instincts, and find great satisfaction in looking after sheep and cattle. It takes some pains to train them into grooms, as they are awkward with horses, the animal being quite unknown among the true Natal *Kafirs in their wild state* ; but with constant looking *after they are turned to very good account in the stable.*

They drive oxen in the yoke admirably; one man and a boy will take a heavily-laden waggon, drawn by fourteen oxen, through the most intricate country, inspanning and casting loose the stubborn beasts, keeping them together during their frequent feeding on the open pasture, and tracking them out when they stray at night. They make excellent messengers and carriers, travelling twenty and thirty miles a day with a knapsack or portmanteau upon their shoulders. If they are going into a district which is strange to them, and where the house or person to whom they are sent is unknown, they put a written direction in a cleft stick (not very unlike the rod of a true Mercury), and present it to every Englishman they meet, until they are finally passed on to their proper destination.

A gentleman who has a very large experience in the employment of Natal Kafirs for rude and hard labour thus speaks of them :—

“I had a constant succession of perfectly raw savages, removed and renewed every six months, and who, therefore, left me just as they were beginning to know their work and to be of value. I was always surprised to see how much the men improved in even that short period. The useful discipline of work, and of having to begin and leave off, to go to their meals and to get up from them, at stated periods, did wonders. I noticed that even the features and the expression of the men’s countenances grew perceptibly brighter and more intelligent under the civilising influences of honest, steady, healthy work. Nearly all my men were rough labourers. But some made excellent sawyers in a pit with a white man at top, and we often found fellows who became very handy as assistants to our English smiths. Under good super-

vision they took kindly to earth-work with shovel, pick, and barrow. The bridge approaches at the Umgeni were made by them entirely under an English navvy, and very well done too. I would at any time, for the work I had in hand at Natal, have preferred one ordinary Kafir to two very good coolies. On the other hand, two good English labourers, working as they do in England—which, however, it must be added, is just what they neither can nor will do in Southern Africa—would accomplish as much as eight Kafirs. The average daily cost of each Kafir during my experience in Natal, including wages, food, and supervision, was about one shilling; perhaps rather more than less, because the Kafir must be paid and fed whether sick or well, whether at work or idle. I think, therefore, that rough native labour in Natal is equal to similar labour at home, purchased at a price of about four shillings per day; that is to say, four Kafirs under an expenditure of four shillings would do what one Englishman would perform in England under the same expenditure. The one great drawback to the value of Kafir labour consists in the impossibility of getting the labourer to work for a lengthened term. Happily or unhappily for the Kafir of Natal, he is always so well off, and has such few wants, that he scarcely feels the influence of Nature's own spur, necessity. I greatly liked the Kafirs as domestic servants."

The wages of Kafir servants in Natal vary from 5s. to 60s. a month, according to the value of the service and the qualifications of the servant. Skilled waggon drivers receive the high pay of from £2 to £3 the month. House servants get from 10s. to 15s. the month; farm labourers from 8s. to 12s.

the month ; and herd boys from 5s. to 7s. the month. These servants all receive rations in addition, consisting principally of three pints of Indian corn-meal per day, with the addition of a little butcher's meat twice a week in towns, amounting in all to a charge of from 10s. to 12s. a month for each. Porters and casual day-servants in towns receive from 1s. to 1s. 6d. per day, without rations.

Indian coolie servants receive from 10s. to 15s. a month and rations when employed as farm or plantation labourers ; and from 15s. to 30s. a month as house servants. The women receive from 5s. to 6s. a month on farms, and from 10s. to 12s. a month for domestic service. The coolie rations in plantation service comprise 2 lbs. of dhol, 2 lbs. of salt fish, 1 lb. of ghee or oil, and 1 lb. of salt per month, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of rice per day. Some of the Indian coolies are now beginning to prefer Indian corn to rice, and are willing to take it in exchange.

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